R E P O R T R E S U M E S

ED 016 434 FL 000 718

BILINGUAL EDUCATION, RESEARCH AND TEACHING, ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF THE SOUTHWEST COUNCIL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS (4TH, EL PASO, NOVEMBER 10-11, 1967). REPORTS.

BY- CHRISTIAN, CHESTER, ED.
SOUTHWEST COUNCIL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS

PUB DATE 67

EDRS PRICE MF-$0.50 HC-$3.56 87P.

DESCRIPTORS- *BILINGUALISM, *SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING, *CONFERENCE REPORTS, *LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION, *CULTURAL EDUCATION, BILINGUAL STUDENTS, BILINGUAL SCHOOLS, RESEARCH REVIEWS (PUBLICATIONS), PROGRAM CONTENT, LANGUAGE PROGRAMS, FOREIGN CULTURE, SOCIAL VALUES, SOCIOLOGY, PSYCHOLOGY, AMERICAN INDIANS, STUDY ABROAD, EDUCATIONAL LEGISLATION, COURSE CONTENT, SPANISH,

THE CONFERENCE PAPERS FALL UNDER THREE REPORT HEADINGS--AREAS WHERE RESEARCH IS NEEDED IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION, TEACHING CONTENT IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE, AND BILINGUAL PROGRAMS IN THE SOUTHWEST. WRITERS OF REPORTS ON RESEARCH AREAS SEEM TO AGREE ON THE IMPORTANCE OF TEACHING CONTENT, WHETHER CULTURAL REALITIES OR ACADEMIC SUBJECT MATTER. THE FIRST TWO PAPERS DEAL WITH THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF BILINGUAL EDUCATION IN RELATION TO VERY BROAD SOCIOLOGICAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF EDUCATION IN MORE THAN ONE LANGUAGE, AND IN TERMS OF MORE THAN ONE SET OF CULTURAL VALUES. THE NEXT THREE PAPERS DEAL WITH SUCH PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS OF BILINGUALISM AND BICULTURALISM AS THE SUCCESSFUL EDUCATION OF CHILDREN OF U.S. CITIZENS LIVING ABROAD, THE UNSUCCESSFUL MONOLINGUAL EDUCATION OF THE AMERICAN INDIAN, AND LEGISLATION ON BILINGUALISM AND BICULTURALISM. FIVE PAPERS ON TEACHING CONTENT SHOW PRACTICAL APPLICATION OF FINDINGS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS, COLLEGES, AND UNIVERSITIES. THE THIRD REPORT INCLUDES PAPERS ON BILINGUAL PROGRAMS IN SIX SOUTHWEST STATES WHICH STRESS TWO THEMES. FIRST, ATTEMPTS ARE BEING MADE TO INCORPORATE THE STUDENT WHOSE PARENTS SPEAK A LANGUAGE OTHER THAN ENGLISH INTO THE STANDARD SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES. SECOND, EFFORTS ARE BEING MADE TO EDUCATE ALL SCHOOL CHILDREN IN USING A SECOND LANGUAGE AND UNDERSTANDING A SECOND CULTURE. (AF)

ED016434

SOUTHWEST COUNCIL of FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS

ANNUAL CONFERENCE

REPORTS

BILINGUAL EDUCATION
Research and Teaching

CHESTER CHRISTIAN — *Editor*

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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November 10 - 11, 1967

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Introduction to Reports

There seems to be implicit acceptance by the writers of the papers in Report I of the proposition that one of the most important aspects of research which needs to be done in the field of bilingual education is that which has to do with teaching content — whether in terms of cultural realities or academic subject matter — in more than one language. Their papers therefore provide a background in depth for the discussion of this specific problem in Report II.

The first two papers deal with theoretical aspects of bilingual education in relation to very broad sociological and psychological implications of education in more than one language, and therefore in terms of more than one set of cultural values. We believe that these papers by Dr. Nostrand and Mr. Dugas represent two examples of the clearest thinking and the most precise statement which have ever been published in relation to bilingual education. The bilingual curriculum is fast becoming a reality in the United States, and these papers remind us of the profound consequences of this fact.

Since 1962, Dr. Nostrand has been director of five research projects for the U. S. Office of Education, and we believe that in his field of investigation neither the extent nor the depth of his studies has been rivaled. The breadth of his knowledge and his ambition is rarely met in modern scholarship. He is attempting to create a model for the study of all languages and cultures, and an all too brief indication of the results of his studies is included in the Appendixes.

Donald Dugas is presently engaged in research at the Center for Research on Language and Language Behavior of the University of Michigan. He is also deeply interested in the broad implications of the bilingual curriculum, and has expressed this interest in such trenchant questions as: Is bilingualism only for the very rich or the disadvantaged? How do we handle the problem of emotionalism or chauvinism? Shouldn't there be bilingual tests which have an essence of their own?" His paper informs us of many research projects which are being or have recently been carried out, as well as of his own orientation to this field.

The three papers which follow these theoretical statements deal with aspects of the practical applications of bilingualism and biculturalism in areas which have been sorely neglected in the literature: the first with a program of bilingual education which is apparently highly successful — the education of children of U. S. citizens residing in other countries; and the second with a program of education which has woefully failed — the monolingual education in the schools of the true native American, the Indian. Dr. Gaarder presents a convincing case of the necessity, if individuality and self-respect are to be preserved, of the preservation of native languages and cultures. The third paper deals with a problem of immense practical importance: legislation related to bilingualism and biculturalism.

Dr. Bruce Gaarder, who directs the Language Institute Program for the U. S. Office of Education, is one of the most active and effective supporters of bilingualism and biculturalism in the United States. He

is so active, in fact, that one would not usually think of him as a library or a research scholar. This and his other published work demonstrate, however, how well he has integrated meticulous scholarship with moving force.

Dr. Goodson is Director of the Regional Educational Agencies Project — International Education, and his work continues to enlarge the scope of bilingualism. We are still grateful to him for his vision as Director of Accreditation for the Texas Education Agency, when he interpreted state law in such a way as to allow the initiation of important bilingual programs such as those being carried out in Laredo and El Paso.

The Honorable Raúl Muñiz, Texas State Representative, tells us how important it is to inform legislators of our research findings in the field of bilingualism so that they may be taken into account in the provision of legal machinery which will allow the most desirable educational policies to be implemented. Too often, adverse laws and regulations have been an excuse for doing nothing, and education has grown stagnant. We believe that this condition is changing, and that these papers will facilitate this change.

Report II takes us from the broader considerations related to bilingual education into the specific, concrete, and practical application of findings in public schools, colleges, and universities.

Ann Komadina introduces the section with a paper which offers a general orientation to the teaching of content in a foreign language. Albar Peña describes some of the practical considerations in elementary school teaching, Genelle Caldwell those in teaching social studies in high school in a foreign lanuage, and Arthur Cullen gives us a view of college teaching in a foreign language.

Miss Komadina, Foreign Language Consultant for the Albuquerque Public Schools, discusses both the teaching of culture as content and the teaching of subject matter content in a foreign language, pointing out that this may be an important solution to many vexing problems, including that of the crowded curriculum. She adds that if teaching in a foreign language is advantageous for a student who is not a native speaker, it might be expected to be more so for one who is.

Dr. Peña is with The Research and Development Center for Teacher Education at the University of Texas at Austin. He has been working on a research project in San Antonio in which children are being taught in both English and Spanish, with a careful study being made of the results. This type of analysis, often overlooked in bilingual programs, is essential for the construction of a solid base of information upon which successful bilingual teaching programs can be founded.

Miss Caldwell, who is State Supervisor of Foreign Language in Delaware, brings news of programs in teaching social studies in foreign languages in Eastern schools which makes us more embarrassed than we have been at the waste of language resources in the Southwest. As she notes, bilingual teaching is by no means new or untried; except perhaps, we might add, it is most appropriate, in areas where linguistic and cultural roots should produce the healthiest growth.

Colleges and universities are notoriously reluctant to accept changes from traditional teaching techniques, so the program at Elbert Covell College which the Provost of that institution, Arthur Cullen, reports on is so unique as to appear revolutionary. Teaching an entire college curriculum in Spanish is, we believe, one of the most effective ways which might be devised of making language a vital part of mature learning and thought. Language learning in colleges and universities of the United States has too often had only ceremonial value, and students outside language departments have rarely learned more of a foreign language than is necessary to claim the degree they are after. We hope that the program at Covell College will help to break down the attitudes which have become congealed in this tradition, and that that institution will demonstrate that imaginative and effective teaching practices are possible even in our universities.

Report III is the first attempt of which we are aware to determine the status of bilingual education throughout the Southwest. The reports from the seven-state area show a marked interest in two aspects of bilingual education, with variations in emphasis both according to state and according to area within each state. These two aspects are: 1) the incorporation of the student whose parents speak a language other than English into the standard social and educational system of the United States, and 2) the education of all school children in using a second language and understanding a second culture.

The first-mentioned aspect of bilingual education offers no new educational principles, but does offer new educational techniques. Both the official and the popular aim of education in the United States has been, almost universally, to incorporate all students into the dominant culture with little or no regard for their linguistic or cultural origins. Although this attempt has met with little success in certain areas of this country, including a large part of the Southwest, we do now have more effective methods for accomplishing this aim. Some of the most important techniques which have been developed and are continually being refined are those for teaching English as a foreign language. And there is some logic in the assumption that people who learn to speak a second language as though they were native to it can be more easily incorporated into the culture of those who speak the language natively. There is a conviction which seems to be becoming more widespread, however, that the greater the success of programs which emphasize *only* this aspect of the education of speakers of languages other than English, the greater the loss to the learner, the educational system, and the country. This conviction seems to be represented in many of the programs described by the state officials who have written these reports.

The second aspect of bilingual education is that of developing literacy and knowledge in two or more languages simultaneously. It is this aspect which has particular significance for many areas in the Southwest, where bilingualism has been established for centuries, but where its educational potential has been almost completely neglected. These reports give many indications that this is no longer to be the case. While English is being taught with progressively greater effective-

ness, there seems to be a growing tendency for other languages to be accepted on a par with English for educational purposes, and for the cultures which are the heritage of the speakers of these languages to be accepted as valid, together with the dominant middle class culture of the United States. This truly represents a revolution in the U. S. educational system, and one in which the Southwest Council of Foreign Teachers has played a leading role.

The results of the growth of this movement has been reflected in recent activities of members of the United States Senate and in their consideration of the Bilingual American Education Act. Either of the two versions of this Act which are in circulation at the present writing would provide resources for developing both of the two aspects of bilingual education described above; either would provide more resources to these states than have ever been available for the implementation of better programs — in the sense of extension, if not quality — than are described herein. We might now take the advice of Texas State Representative Raúl Muñiz as offered in this volume, and inform our government officials as best we can of the importance to the educational system and to the country of this type of legislation.

CHESTER C. CHRISTIAN, *El Paso, Texas, October, 1967*

Toward a Bi-Cultural Curriculum

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It is a heartening experience for a student from another region to survey what the schools and research centers of the Southwest are doing about the problem we all share, of adapting an essentially ethnocentric curriculum and school life to the modern fact of languages and cultures in collision with one another. The partial bibliography at the end of this paper makes one wonder whether an observer like me can add anything more than his admiration for the activities already under way.

Activity always raises the question, nonetheless, of the precise direction in which its future stages should be projected. Bilingual education, in fact, faces a basic question of policy. Should it aim toward making all learners primarily bearers of the dominant culture? Or should it, on the contrary, try to treat both cultures impartially, and each learner as a bearer predominantly of his family's culture? Or is some compromise preferable to both of these solutions?

How the Southwest resolves this issue will be of significance all over the globe. For while the Southwest is not unusual in being a self-aware cultural laboratory, it does possess unusually rich resources for investigating the alternative solutions and their complex effects — on the persons involved, on the local cultures, and on the relations between local groups and between whole national societies.

Probably we all agree that just as a language is an inseparable part of a culture, so the language for communication depends on his attitude toward the people who speak the language. This has been convincingly demonstrated by Wallace Lambert.[1] And once one has learned words and phrases, successful communication requires that one also understands the concepts, attitudes and feelings they allude to.

It does not follow from the recognition of bilingualism as a bi-cultural problem, however, that education in a bilingual community should be bi-cultural. It can be, on the contrary (and usually is) a process of enculturation into the one dominant culture of the region.

Let me start from the assumption that we do not want a really bi-cultural curriculum, which would mean, I propose, a curriculum with the following three features:

1. The two cultures would be treated with impartial objectivity and with equally sympathetic appreciation. This would entail experience of, and descriptive knowledge about, whatever parts of each sociocultural whole are judged essential for an understanding of it.

2. Each learner would be enabled to develop as a bearer of his parents' culture, while at the same time he would be taught to become a full participant in the society immediately around him. It is practicable, I think, to make the distinction this requires between a person's "culture" in the sense of values and beliefs, attitudes and sentiments, art forms and symbolisms, and "society"

in the sense of the norms of conduct, social roles and institutions that pattern the interpersonal and intergroup relations of a population.

3. The third essential feature for a model bi-cultural curriculum, I propose, is that the two cultures be presented in a world perspective. It may seem an unnecessary complication to argue that a true bi-cultural education must be multi-cultural. But it is a harmfully misleading habit of mind that we inculcate if we represent the many-sided play of cultures on the world stage as though it were a drama betwen two actors. It is all too easy to adopt a two-culture perspective that is almost as narrow and rigid as the one-culture ethnocentrism — just as a marriage between two self-centered persons tends to become simply an egotism for two. The multi-cultural outlook is therefore essential for the good of education, entirely apart from the fact that it also resolves a practical problem: what to do about the Navajo or Zuni child in a group of Anglo and Hispanic children. The Indian child, like the others, can develop as a bearer of his parents' culture, in which he can take increasing pride as his teachers and classmates grow to appreciate how much our Western civilization can learn from non-Western ways of life.

Much of this advantage could be gained, however, without encouraging each student to espouse his parental culture: we can follow the usual practice of molding the whole group to one culture, and still admire aspects of other life-styles. The burden of proof rests on the proponent of a bi-cultural curriculum. It means so much work — developing the descriptive knowledge of the cultures concerned, providing for the experience of a second culture, planning the use of third cultures that will show the range of human variation — that I confess I am opposed to the attempt unless I can be shown good reason for going to all that trouble. But the case in favor is a strong one.

Every child today ought to learn to understand a second culture in sufficient depth to have a constructive influence, if only as an enlightened voter, upon our collective efforts to cope with intercultural conflicts. Such understanding requires not only knowledge but experience of the second culture — the experience without which any knowledge about it is empty verbalization. In my opinion, the needed experience can most efficiently be assured if the student learns the language of the culture. One must experience the fact that the attitudes, feelings, and habits of thought peculiar to a culture are embodied in verbal expressions that are essentially untranslatable: translation twists them into new meanings, as is shown by the experiment of retranslating back into the original language.

It follows that the children both of the majority culture and of a minority culture should learn a foreign language and its cultural context in some depth; and they may best choose the language and culture of each other to gain the advantage of having live models at hand.

But while it is important educationally to study a second culture in depth, I do not believe one can belong to two differing cultures: inner conflict results unless one identifies himself with one way of life

or the other. Nor do I believe that a child of school age can switch from one culture to another without conflict. It is hard enough for young people to achieve a satisfying self-concept without our further confusing the values and assumptions that constitute their identity.

The mood of revolt among young people of high-school and college age in many countries shows that they suffer to a marked degree from the twentieth-century malaise called "alienation." For them, this means particularly a certain antagonism toward the mores and traditions which they associate with the generation of their parents. But as Ernest Becker has shown in a recent book, *Beyond Alienation*, the malaise is a more general phenomenon than the generation gap, and its cause is the converging forces that constrict "human powers in the search for meaning."[2] The malaise is, at bottom, the "anxiety of meaninglessness" identified by Paul Tillich as one of the three "existential" anxieties — anxieties arising from a perfectly sane view of man's situation — which have successively preoccupied Western Man.[3] Professor Becker goes on to urge that education foster 'self-reliance, the assumption of responsibility for new and unique meanings.' (p. 230). But this individual modification of the inherited culture must come after a person has assimilated one of the self-consistent, traditional views of man's striving as meaningful exertion. Until the learner is ready to make his personal synthesis, I repeat, he needs to identify himself with a single culture that he feels to be his own. This is the "developmental task" that remains unfinished at secondary-school age. It should be accomplished in such a way as to prepare for a more independent personality in adulthood, and for this purpose the study of a culture different from one's own can be of great value. But a personal "reflective synthesis" is the developmental task for a stage later than high school.[4]

In some respects, the bi-cultural curriculum I propose is a middle ground between the two extremes of imposing the majority's life style and allowing the complete substitution of another. For I am proposing the assimilation of the whole bi-cultural group to the local social system, and further, I agree heartily with Herschel Manuel (1965, p. 41) that discussion in the group should pick out the best features of each of the cultures in contact, and should probe the prospect that they may converge more and more as each culture continues to evolve. Certainly we should not try to keep separate the conflicting views on historical fact, such as one encounters in the study of Mexican — United States relations.

On the other hand I disagree with much current practice, in my concern for each learner to make his own culture a secure home base. This requires, I think, that each thoroughly learn the culture-related parts of his native language: the expressions of values; assumptions about the nature of man, the world, and society; humor and the other forms of folk art specific to the culture.

There is a tendency to underestimate the cultural differences embodied in these sectors of our languages. For example, a distinguished French educator reaffirmed recently the view that the French language can express anything expressed in any other language, with the one restriction that French may impose a higher standard of clarity. One

can quickly explode this conceit by examining the French translations of Shakespeare, or of Cervantes, or of Dante. And there are many more languages whose translatability into French would have to be attested by speakers of the languages. A Senegalese teacher of French, who speaks his second language fluently, tells me that the French-speaking Senegalese use their own language among themselves because French does not express so well what they want to convey. If he spoke English, he would inevitably report the same inadequacy — for the very reason that led the old Swede to say, "The language that expresses sentiments as they really *are* is Swedish."

The kind of bi-cultural curriculum I have indicated would give us our likeliest chance, I submit, of accomplishing several objectives. The minority students would have the self-confidence of a secure home culture; and they would be freed from their defensive posture because their culture would be realistically and understandingly appreciated by their associates of the majority culture. These associates, in turn, would be relieved of the superiority complex that comes of assuming privately that styles of life can be objectively compared by applying to all of them values of one's own life style. If these two objectives can be assured throughout the Southwest, we shall have a bi-cultural population capable of spreading mutual respect between two cultures of the Americas; and out of this population will develop leaders such as the world so badly needs, who can deal with the cultural problems of international cooperation and negotiation as expertly as we have learned to deal with the more narrowly military and economic problems.

The hope of these outcomes, in my opinion, justifies the labor of developing the sort of bi-cultural curriculum I envisage. What labor would be required on the part of those who organize the requisite knowledge, and those who apply it to education?

THE REQUISITE DESCRIPTIVE KNOWLEDGE OF CULTURES

A sociocultural system is so vast that a selection must be made of the parts most important for a grasp of the whole. I suggest concentration on four subsystems, which I shall call the culture, the society, the individual, and the ecology. The main parts of these subsystems are enumerated in a structured inventory, appended to this paper (See Appendix I - Ed.) as "An 'Emergent Model' of a Sociocultural System" — so called because it gives promise of emerging out of the inventory form into that of a structural-functional model capable of showing the interaction of the parts, and also the current evolution of the system.

A structured inventory of this sort, apparently adaptable to fit any culture, permits the cross-cultural comparisons that a bi-cultural curriculum requires: the four subsystems and their component parts listed in the appended inventory facilitate the comparison of Western cultures with a third, preferably non-Western culture, whether the curriculum builder chooses to introduce a single third culture for continual reference, as Margaret Mead has suggested in a conversation, or fragments of different cultures selected to contrast with the Western cultures at each point, so as to show the wide range of variation in life styles. Actually the two principles can both be used: Navajo or a Pueblo culture could be drawn in as needed, in order to put the cultures locally

represented in the world-wide context that is the only true and realistic perspective.

The Emergent Model requires a total of about 30 subheadings. Once these main aspects of a sociocultural system have been identified, three further tasks remain: definition, synthesis, and the application of teaching. Each aspect of a system must be defined according to the present standard of sound evidence. Then, what can most truthfully be said on each essential point must be organized into adult synthesis. The Emergent Model, I suggest, provides the best available structure for this purpose. Finally, the parts of the whole that are to be used in education must be made assimilable into the lives of the prospective learners. The selection of the parts to be used can be made scientific by finding out empirically what aspects of a given way of life will need to be explained with particular care to a given group of outsiders. This empirical approach is illustrated by the questionnaire "How Americans See the French," which has been pre-tested but not administered, and which is appended as a second annex to the present paper. (See Appendix II - Ed.)

The creating of the needed descriptive knowledge, poses a huge task for researchers. So little of the knowledge exists in usable form[5] that the task would require a careful division of labor among the pertinent research centers, such as the Human Relations Area Files at Yale, the area-study centers inside and outside the areas currently being studied, the Regional Educational Research Laboratories, the new International Center for Research on Bilingualism at Laval University, and the two branches of ERIC (Educational Research Information Center) that are being managed by the Modern Language Association of America and the Center for Applied Linguistics. For each culture concerned, a bibliography of existing studies can be made immediately, and a consolidation of what can most truthfully be said on each essential topic could be prepared in a year or two. The refining of the "regularities" posited for each culture will constitute an unending task, involving continual fresh research to supplant uncertain generalizations and to discover how the culture is changing.

Two interesting problems inherent in the descriptive labor seem at first insoluble, yet can be attacked constructively.

Since excellence in human performance is inevitably the exception, the local representatives of both the minority and the majority cultures represent their great patrimonies in more or less deplorable versions: provincial in outlook, rigid in their response to the challenge of new conditions, fear-ridden and selfish in their approach to out-groups, and convinced that the fault lies on the other side of the tracks.

The solution I propose is to distinguish between a behavioral synthesis and what I call a humane synthesis of the same sociocultural system. Each section of the description formulates first the way people actually behave, in the several social classes and geographic regions of the culture area, and then goes on to formulate the culture "at its best": the way informed bearers of the culture believe it ought to be. The behavioral and the humane descriptions, in which the behavioral sciences and the humanities, respectively, take the main initiative, are

both essential for a full understanding of the system either by the outside observer or by the inside participant.

The other problem is that the excellent in a foreign culture cannot all be appreciated by taking as criteria one's own values and assumptions — the "ground of meaning" specific to one culture. An Anglo-American can hardly appreciate, without extending his "ground of meaning," the carefree management of minutes and seconds by the Latin American, or the cyclical time-conception encountered in India — which makes dates less important than the placing of an event on a great life-cycle — or the mysticism that undercuts American pragmatism. We all tend to be provincial and intolerant in the vast area beyond our own culture's values and assumptions. I talked with a highly intelligent and sophisticated French woman who said, in effect, "We know that customs and courtesies are arbitrary and relative; but where the Americans go wrong is in failing to apply the French value system." Religions in contact oppose conscious beliefs to one another, and we are accustomed to expect differences. Cultures in contact oppose largely unconscious assumptions, habits of thought and habits of social behavior, and these we are not yet prepared to deal with effectively.

The remedy I propose is to formulate the ground-of-meaning assumptions of the cultures to be taught — section I.C. of the Emergent Model — as well as the value sytem and the other essential subdivisions. This can be done so that natives to the cultures will say "This is true of me, I recognize myself, though I never thought of it." The laborious task is the describing of the regularities in each culture; once that is done, or even well under way, the further step of developing broad-mindedness becomes a manageable and exciting prospect of crosscultural conversation and class discussion.

How different the main underlying assumptions of two Western cultures can be is illustrated by my trial study of French culture and the sketchy counterpart for the United States (1967). In French culture it seems of prime importance that the individual is a discrete entity, and far more precious than the group; the American emphasis is on the collective perfecting of society and mastery of the universe. While the French also want this mastery, they feel that one must adapt to nature in order to benefit from it. The French conceive society as being structured on a vertical axis; the Americans, on a predominantly horizontal one. The Frenchman has a small circle of close friends and is distrustful of others; the American has rather the opposite characteristics. The Frenchman tends to organize space in a radial pattern; the American, in the form of a grid. The Hispanic counterpart of these features I am not prepared to formulate.

In the case of the other part of ground of meaning — the value system — I do hazard a couple of three-way contrasts on the basis of my studies of 1961 and 1967. Spanish individualism centers upon the honor, the *dignidad* of the person; hence the lifelong *resentimientos*. French individualism centers rather on the independence of the individual, and the American counterpart is a more sharply focused "self-reliance." The Hispanic personality seeks an essentially religious inner quiet, *la serenidad*, an ideal very different from the French *art de vivre*

with its emphasis on enjoying small pleasures and on sociability. And while these two value the perfecting of one's own being above what one accomplishes, the American "achieving society" puts the higher value on what one does — acting upon materials outside the self. Such contrasts abound throughout the three sytems of culture-wide values, and introduction of even a single non-Western culture makes the discussion of value systems a fascinating form of liberal education.

APPLYING THE DESCRIPTIVE KNOWLEDGE IN THE CURRICULUM

The basic substantive problem of pedagogical application is that of grade-level assignment: the determining of the age at which each essential element of the eventual, adult understanding is to be introduced. After venturing a few suggestions on this and the equally basic matter of teacher preparation, I shall close with a comment on the overarching problem of administrative coordination.

American education has gained a great deal in student motivation, I believe, by introducing each new activity or concept only when the learner is ready for it. We can now apply the principle "learner readiness" more effectively than ever by reason of a new insight into it, which we owe chiefly to the research and experimentation of Jerome Bruner. The new insight is that the readiness to learn is determined not alone by psychophysical growth and out-of-school experience, but also by the sequencing of the planned experiences in the school; and Professor Bruner observed in 1967, during a term as visiting professor at the University of Washington, that the growing evidence made him more firm in his conviction that with careful sequencing, some significant part of any concept can be learned at an early age. We shall have to exploit this resource to the full of our ingenuity as modern society intensifies its demands on the individual.

Under an earlier and more fatalistic interpretation of learner readiness, it was common to delay any substantial learning about foreign peoples and international relations until after prior cycles treating the family, local community, county, state, and nation. The Southwest has a head start over most regions of the United States in that the relations between national cultures were inescapable at the local community level. The Southwest can therefore lead others of us in applying the new insight.

We have not yet made the most of the possible coordination of social studies, language arts, a foreign language, the sciences of nature and extracurricular activities in a sequencing of experiences that maximizes the intellectual curiosity and conceptual ability of the student. I include the natural sciences not only because they harbor the main focus of interest of many children, but also because the concept of human ecology, originating in the biological sciences, promises to be one of the most fruitful of the organizing ideas which, in conjunction with one another, promise the possibility of grasping the essentials of contemporary knowledge. Teachers in all fields, including the contrastive analysis of cultures, can benefit by the work of Dr. Helmut K. Buechner, Head of the Office of Ecology recently established in the Smithsonian Institution.

Coordinated sequencing must be adapted to local conditions, but general plans can usefully be developed cooperatively on a nationwide or international scale. I suggest that early in the grades we can begin drawing attention to these topics, treating them in such a way as to build toward an adult grasp of cultural themes and social institutions:

1. The family as a theme in two value systems and as an institution in the two societies (the nuclear vs. extended family; responsiveness of the young person to family vs. responsiveness to peer group; later the roles of the family members and the norms of conduct that define the roles).
2. Politeness in the two social codes (greetings, introducing a person, thanking, saying goodbye, eating (table manners), conduct toward persons of one's own and of higher social status).
3. Education as an institution in the two societies.
4. Recreation, likewise: particularly the leisure-time activities of persons of the learner's age.

The potential contribution of the foreign language sequence toward the whole is tentatively outlined in a third appendix to this paper, "Achievement to be Expected in the Understanding of the Foreign Sociocultural System". This outline would have to be merged, of course, into the interdisciplinary sequence of a school's curriculum; but the outline indicates how much can be expected at each "level" of foreign-language proficiency — "level" meaning approximately one Carnegie unit (five contact hours a week at senior-high level), longer exposure at lower age levels and a more rapid pace in college.

The education of teachers to participate in the recommended sort of bi-cultural curriculum would need to include an adult synthesis of two sociocultural systems, and skill in using the most effective devices for cross-cultural education. Among these are, presumably,

1. Team teaching by persons of different cultures, with discussion of the contrasts exemplified.
2. The use of audiovisual illustrations of each life style—art forms, social behavior, ecology — as the experimental component in an understanding of culture-wide regularities and variant forms.
3. The use of key phrases in the foreign languages concerned, to designate values, attitudes, sentiments, etc., that are not accurately expressible in translation.
4. Judicious use of the "sensitivity training" technique, as it has been used for example by Dr. Brock Chisholm in the early development of the World Health Organization staff, and as it has been further developed by the National Training Laboratory of the National Education Association.

Teacher education might well make the cross-cultural dimension of human understanding a central concern in its cultural or "general education" sector; and the problem of attitude change, with such resources as group dynamics — including the particularly powerful device of "sensitivity training" — is properly a central concern in the sector of professional preparation. These interests, moreover, can serve as a broadening influence throughout a teacher's career-long self-development.

Some teachers will enjoy perfecting their competence in a second language to the point where they can teach their subject in it. By this means, and by bringing in exchange teachers. the bi-cultural curriculum will need to include a substantial part of its instruction and class discussion in the second language. During pre-service education every prospective teacher, including those preparing for teaching in the elementary school, should carry the study of a second language far enough so that he or she will find it a manageable operation in later life to complete the competence — and far enough, furthermore, to be a sophisticated, self-confiident and effective learner of another language if the need arises.

As for the practicability of teaching a science, social-science or literature course in a foreign language, the experimental evidence seems to be that a class so taught can learn more biology (for example) *and* more Spanish than control groups studying just biology or just Spanish for an equivalent time. The relevant experiments have been listed in a project proposal by the Department of Foreign Languages, National Education Association. The DFL should be encouraged to publish the compilation.

The administration of a bi-cultural curriculum faces first of all the task of coordinating the disciplines into a single lingual sequence, and secondly, that of utilizing the extra-curricular school life as a source of "co-curricular" learning experiences. This extension of the administrative sphere merges with the community's program of adult education: not only the continuing education of teachers, which thrives best in a situation of attractive opportunities, but also the involvement of parents in the education of children, as is being done in the Tucson Public Schools (1962-) and in Stuyvesant High School, Brooklyn, New York, where New York University is assisting an experiment with students who suffer from intense psychological and environmental turbulance. (The film, "How It Is," makes almost any teacher's students seem serene and attentive by comparison.)

The administrative purview merges likewise with a sphere of attention which has seemed to most people in the past a different world from theirs: the world of current research in such fields as ecology and human geography, the comparison of social structures, and the contrastive analysis of the value systems, the philosophical assumptions and art forms that make one culture differ from another in its "ground of meaning."

I find it useful to distinguish four levels of research, differing from one another in the range of what is admitted as relevant to the question at hand. The educational administration and the teacher as practitioner have a direct concern only with the lower levels of the four, which are the most restrictively focused. At the lower end of the scale is the applied level, which consists largely of "point-of-application" research, such as the comparison of an experimental class and a control group. The other level which is of direct concern is the synthesis of working principles: the consolidation of the best knowledge we have at present. This second level includes the problem of bibliographic control, which in the field of bi-cultural education will require a process of shaping

new instruments and services, in which school people, as well as the research centers I have mentioned, should decidedly have a voice.

The two upper levels, continuing the progressively broadening scope of what is relevant to a given problem, are the critique of working theory, without which the synthesis at the level below would harden into a rigid dogma, and at the top end of the scale, pure speculative thought and experiment which must be free of any obligation to be relevant to anything, yet without which the three levels below would go bankrupt for lack of new basic ideas to apply.

While the critique and speculative levels are not of direct concern, perhaps, to school people as curriculum builders, one would be a less than professional sort of consumer if one did not share the concern to maintain the source of the working theory one accepts. The past separation of practitioners from researchers, moreover, has been too nearly hermetic for the good of either. As research at all four of the levels comes more and more to require interdisciplinary teams — the University of Arizona is reported, for example, to be planning team research into problems of the Mexican-Americans, using combinations of competences in which comparative jurisprudence would be included — we should look forward to a time when school as well as college people can count it part of their job to contribute toward the creating as well as the purveying of new knowledge. There can be doubt that this combination of professional activities is making school careers more attractive to the innovative minds in the oncoming generation.

The sort of bi-cultural curriculum I propose would demand of all of us a range of interests, of competence, and of professional responsibility that would stretch our minds to the limit of our capacity. Yet if we really want to produce more broadly and more deeply educated students than ever before, the only way to do it is to be the first of those students ourselves.

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"The documentation division gathers published material on bilingualism in general, case studies of bilingualism, language and nationality studies, language laws, language conflict, language differences, bilingual interference, and linguistic borrowing. It also processes documents on language dominance, demography and language statistics, second languages in various countries, and language testing.

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Research Relevant to the Development of Bilingual Curricula

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There are many fields besides linguistics which could be of use to anyone planning for bilingual education. In this article specific contributions from four such fields will be discussed: psycholinguistics, social psychology, sociolinguistics and developmental psycholinguistics.

Each helps us look at bilingual education from a different perspective. Psycholinguistics speak in terms of two types of bilinguals, one allegedly better than the other. Social psychologists have pointed to correlations between specific attitudes and success in becoming bilingual. Sociolinguistics can help us specify more realistic language objectives by having us focus on the co-occurrence between the type of language used and the social interactions which seem to dictate this usage. Finally, recent findings by developmental psycholinguistics may force us to re-examine some of our earlier notions in regard to language acquisition and teaching methodology.

Psycholinguistics[1] has established two types of bilinguals: compound and coordinate. The compound bilingual has a single language system with a single set of referents. He mixes both languages without always being aware that he does so. If he becomes brain-damaged, he has more difficulty recovering his language facility than does a coordinate bilingual.

On the other hand, the coordinate bilingual seems to operate on two separate channels. He keeps his languages separate. He is always aware of what language he is using. If he suffers brain damage (aphasia) he recovers his speaking facility more easily. He has learned his languages in separate cultural milieus, has at least partially distinct referents for the two languages and can readily associate with speakers from either culture. In short, he is bilingual and bicultural, the ideal product of bilingual education.

As has been said, it seems that a coordinate bilingual has learned his language in separate cultural settings. What does this mean for bilingual education? Can we educate coordinate bilinguals in schools? What can we do to separate the two language learning contexts? Probably the minimum requirement would be to use separate native speakers for instruction in each language. Is this enough? Obviously, we cannot replicate two different cultures in a school setting. So far, we don't even know how different the teaching contexts have to be to assure true coordinate bilingualism. Research is definitely needed here. If coordinates cannot be trained in a school setting, is it still worthwhile educating compound bilinguals?

Even if we could replicate two separate cultural settings within a school context we would still have problems. Suppose one culture is simply repugnant to the average child raised in America. Then its constant presence could possibly engender negative attitudes toward

the language that reflects it and thus militate against the objective of bilingual schooling.

Social psychologists[2] have carried out attitudinal studies which are relevant to second language learning. They have found, for example, that students who are integrative (i.e., like the second culture) succeed better than those who are instrumental (i.e., study language as a tool).

This suggests that if we could interest our students in both milieus, they might better become bilingual. True, no causal relationship has been established between integrative attitude and success in language learning. However, acting on the assumption that such a relationship does obtain (until disproved), we might seek interesting cultural facets of the second community to which the student would be anxious to relate. If he really becomes interested in that second culture we should expect increased language competence on his part.

This is not farfetched. We probably all know of cases where students seem to succeed in particular subjects because of empathy with their teacher. At the college level they may even choose their major subject for such reasons. In teaching a foreign language, a teacher has a complete civilization from which to draw for motivational material. For example, at the rebellious teen-age level, a student might very easily emphathise with Mauriac's "Thérese" or Camus' "Etranger".

It is probably not inappropriate at this point to question the usual cultural fare of most foreign language programs. This fare is too often the literature or history of the country. Surely, there must be more direct means of encouraging the child to enjoy some of the more low-brow culture which fascinates his foreign counterpart? This, in turn, could easily be the point of departure for further, more "serious" exchanges on values and styles. A specific example might help from the second culture I know best, French. Songs by Francoise Hardy, a popular rock and roll singer who accompanies herself on the guitar, would interest a teen-ager very much. These could easily become the focal point of discussion conducted in French on the differences between American and French approaches to the popular love song, i.e., musical, lyrical (linguistic) and content differences between the two. This could also give rise to cultural differences on dating, love, etc. Another possibility might be the weekly showing of a popular foreign T.V. program addressed to the appropriate age groups, via video-tape, etc. There seem to be many interesting possibilities open to us.

On the other hand, there are approaches to be avoided. For example, telling a child he should be proud to be bilingual is not necessarily helpful. It may help if a highly respected Anglo does the telling. Also, forcing him to study a propagandized history of his country of origin is just as fruitless. His probable reaction will be that you're adding another burden of uninteresting facts and dates to his memory. Besides, if I may get personal, there is something of a letdown in getting through the history of French Canada only to be reminded that we lost the final battle, no matter how many bodies were strewn on the battlefield. Finally, it is probably not very helpful to ask the students to study only the early classical literature of the culture involved, unless it has been found to be stimulating to their age group. Generally, the selections

taught at the earlier levels of high school seem rather stuffy and uncontroversial — therefore, not too appealing to that age group. In brief, let us explore more creative ways for making integrative learners of our bilingual students.

Social psychologists have also made interesting findings concerning stereotypes between two language groups. They are worth mentioning here because they may play a role in the relative success or failure of a bilingual student. Let us be more specific. Lambert[2] found that French Canadian bilingual girls tended to develop negative attitudes regarding themselves by about age 12. This suggests that perhaps something might be tried in the school or societal context to prevent this from occurring during the early years of schooling. What this might be is not clear. Perhaps the empathic native English-speaking teacher might be of great assistance here. Positive references to bilinguals in English texts might also help. Finally, a staff of self-reliant coordinate bilingual teachers might complement such a drive.

Lambert also found that one language group did not have blanket stereotypes vis-a-vis the other. The English Canadian had negative stereotypes of the French Canadian man. However, the French Canadian woman fared rather well. "The English Canadian men saw the French Canadian lady . . . as more intelligent, ambitious, self-confident, dependable, courageous and sincere than their English counterparts. The English Canadian ladies were not quite so gracious, although they, too, rated the French Canadian ladies as more intelligent, ambitious, self-confident (but shorter) than the English Canadian woman."

The French Canadian woman must become aware of this in later life and realizes that her second language is an asset to her. We might expect that she would. therefore, be more willing to maintain bilingualism.

On the other hand, the French Canadian male, sensing his lower ranking, might be better motivated to learn English as a foreign language and let his native language deteriorate. Hopefully, if he can be educated to master standard English as a means of warding off negative social reaction from monolinguals, he might conceivably regain his self-confidence and be induced to maintain his native language since it would at this point no longer endanger his social mobility.

If he could be motivated to maintain his French, psychological research would suggest that he be taught by speakers of continental French, since in the eyes of the Anglo-Canadian, this speaker enjoys a better image than the French Canadian. Unfortunately, no one seems to have tried to relate the Montreal findings to other bilingual communities, so we don't know how they might apply elsewhere.

Sociolinguistics[3] has a more direct contribution to make to bilingual education. It has been examining the linguistic division of labor performed by two languages in a situation of stable intragroup bilingualism. It has found that one language tends to become linked to high culture and formality and the other with intimacy and informality. The kind of language associated with high culture and formality is really dictated by social rules. It is generally rather static and fixed, compared to the more individualistic, more creative language of intimacy and infor-

mality where social constraints are not at work. Language teaching so far has preferred to address itself to the formal level. No doubt that is why dialogue memorization, etc., is so popular.

However, if the bilingual child expects to integrate into the monolingual society, he must have access to an informal linguistic repertoire which will not be repugnant to his monolingual counterpart. (It could be repugnant either because he is too formal or too coarse.) Only such a repertoire would allow him to break through the linguistic barrier against his social mobility.

Language functions can be further subdivided according to topic, setting and interrelationship. There is a certain language required to discuss the topic, say, of world peace. This topic could be discussed with one's teacher or with fellow students. If one is discussing with his teacher, he is constrained to more formal usage. In talking with fellow students, his choice of styles is dependent upon the setting. In a round-table discussion (class setting) the expected style is formal, but in a bull session with the same students at the corner drugstore, say, he can be more colloquial. Later, if he were drafted, he would have to resort to what we could call substandard usage in order to maintain social interaction.

What I am suggesting is that a bilingual be provided with a rich repertoire of linguistic alternatives from which he can consciously select the most appropriate linguistic behavior based upon his realization of the social interactions involved.

This seems like a large order, I realize, but no doubt the repertoire could be limited by the probability with which each language would be used for different functions, domains, etc. Some would be essential. For example, a speaker of Spanish should feel comfortable in the use of formal English during the transactional event of being interviewed for a job.

Such a functional approach to language teaching has been applied successfully in teaching disadvantaged children.[4] Here, the purpose is to give these children the language repertoire necessary to understand and elicit information in a school setting. They are first taught to name things (nouns), then to describe them (adjectives), and their actions (verbs), etc. Later, they learn to ask yes/no questions about these things, then questions which elicit responses which carry more than just yes/no information, etc. As they go on, they are taught to use and understand "if . . . then" constructions, so that they can understand and discuss cause and effect relationships, etc. This approach, based somewhat on the pattern drill method of language teaching, is a useful model of a functional approach to language teaching.

It would not be appropriate to terminate this article on research relevant to bilingual education without reference to the contribution of the new field of developmental psycholinguistics[5] to our understanding of language acquisition. It has made findings which seem relevant to methodology.

This field is interested in plotting all stages of concept and language development in children. Some of its observations seem to contradict hypotheses language teachers hold regarding the acquisitional process.

We are not suggesting that the process of learning a second language duplicates the steps of first language learning. Yet it might be fruitful to run experiments, in the school setting, which might help us determine exactly how similar these two processes are.

For example, a psycholinguist has said that the language teacher might best present foreign syntax using the same steps that a child goes through to acquire it. Thus, he would first teach one-word utterances which could carry many meanings, then, via so-called "pivot" or function words, bring the learner to use two-word utterances, etc. It would have to be established that such a presentation would indeed be effective and interesting from the learner's point of view. But then, how many language methods have ever been meaningfully researched for effectiveness and interest?

Psycholinguistics also reminds us that a child learns his first language without being "taught", as we understand that term. We don't know what goes on here, but somehow the child intuitively learns how to interpret utterances on his own before he can speak. It is true he may repeat what he hears his parents say. Yet he does this much more rarely than we have been assuming in the past. This should not be used as an excuse for not trying to teach, but it is a healthy thing to remember.

Studies on the echoic behavior of children have also shown that children can say more than they understand and that there are many limitations on the types of structures they can imitate. Scholars are even questioning that echoic behavior is what leads to first language learning.

A recent study[6] on the effects of adult expansion of children's utterances seems to support this view. It has generally been thought that when a child says "dog bite", his parents can best help his language acquisition by expanding the original utterance, something like, "Yes, the dog is biting." This procedure is effective. However, the surprising fact is that children seem to learn language even more quickly from expatiation, i. e., when the child says "dog bite," the adult says "Yes, he's angry." This is an important finding. It seems to indicate that children learn more from normal conversation situations than from the artificial, unreal and sometimes very uninteresting approach of the pattern drill. It suggests that we allow ourselves to experiment with more realistic language situations in teaching. Of course, its use will demand more creativity on the part of the textbook author and the teacher.

Finally, research in the systems approach[7] shows great promise in offering us the most efficient strategies for incorporating all the above findings along with those of linguists into the ideal bilingual program.

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Bilingual Programs In American Schools Abroad

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There are two factors that make for one of the most unusual educational enterprises that can be found in operation in the world today. In 1965 there were 1,769,000 U. S. citizens and their d pendents living abroad and the English language is emerging as the most influential one in the world due to the fact that it is the avenue for obtaining the technical and scientific skills basic to modern life.

The interest in English and the American citizens abroad have led to the development of the binational, bicultural schools found throughout the world. In some cases, the schools originated through the initiative of American citizens and, in other cases they were started by citizens of the host country. The typical school has about 60 percent of its pupils from the host country, 35 percent from United States families, and 5 percent from other nations.

The exent to which the schools are bicultural and binational varies considerably, but in every case these elements are a part of the environment. In all cases communication involves at least two languages. The problems of developing bilingual pupils in such schools revolve around: (1) At what time should the teaching of the second language be begun? (2) After what grade will non-English speakers be refused admittance? (3) When shall the third, or fourth, language be begun? (4) What is the best method for teaching a second language? (5) How are good teachers developed?

In response to these questions the schools are beginning to limit enrollment for non-English speakers who enter after grade six. Usually the third or fourth language is introduced in the high school and is taught very much as a foreign language is taught in United States high schools. The methods that have emerged over the years are usually based on empirical experiences of the teacher, rather than a carefully planned program of bilingual instruction. The teacher turnover has proven to be one of the greatest problems and there is a tendency to use anyone who may be a native speaker as a language teacher. In other words, operate on the theory that 'if you can speak it you can teach it.'

Some of the factors that have made these schools a success in spite of the handicaps mentioned above is that they are, in effect, a living laboratory for a language study. There has been no need to build motivation to study a second language, nor to show the need for such study, as each child in school each day finds his own challenge and reward in being able to handle the second language. This overall environment forced the development of an audio-lingual method before these terms were current in the United States. In addition, the situation is such that every individual attending one of the binational schools is exposed to many facets of another culture. This results in an understanding of other peoples, other ways of thinking, other approaches to life, and, in this way, language teaching has all the vitality of a

real experience, rather than a sterile, make-believe type of approach.

The results of these binational, bilingual programs have generally been good in that the graduates of these schools are creating successful lives using a second language and living in a second culture. Individuals who have attended these schools have a thorough understanding of the second culture, which is rooted in childhood experiences and becomes part of the individual's character and outlook in a way that can never be produced in adults.

The real lesson for language teachers in these schools is in the fact that languages become alive and vital when there is a mixture of two cultures and two peoples. Language cannot be taught in a vacuum, but must be related to the surrrounding environment. With this in mind, teachers in the Southwest should capitalize on the Spanish-speaking heritage of this area so as to provide a vital exchange between the two languages and cultures. Experiences in countries speaking the second language should be required of every teacher and encouraged for every pupil.

Education of American Indian Children

B. GAARDER

U. S. Office of Education

A statement of recommendations on the organization, content, teachers, and teaching methods of a system of schools would be meaningless without a clear understanding of the nature of the children to be educated and of the society which produces and includes them, or without general agreement as to the philosophy underlying their education. In the case of American Indian children neither the clear understanding nor the general agreement can safely be assumed, and both must therefore be made explicit. However briefly, we must first attempt to say who and what these children are and what are the results we would hope to attain with them.

SECTION ONE: *The philosophical basis of educational policy in the U.S.*

Brief references to two documents, 184 years apart in our history, suffice on this point. The earlier document, the Bill of Rights of the Constitution, is unequivocally emphatic about the primacy and dignity of the individual as opposed to the power of the state. Justice Brandeis has epitomized this emphasis in the Olmstead Case: "The makers of the Constitution . . . sought to protect Americans in their beliefs, their thoughts, their emotions and their sensations. They conferred, as against the Government, *the right to be let alone,* the most comprehensive of rights and the right most valued by civilized men."

The second document, published in 1960 as *Goals for Americans,* contains the Report of President Eisenhower's Commission on National Goals together with certain essays on the same subject. Henry Wriston, chairman of the Commission, reminds us that human dignity is the basic value of freedom, that dignity "does not consist in being well-housed, well-clothed and well-fed." And he goes on to say that "it rests exclusively upon the lively faith that individuals are beings of infinite value." (Wriston, 1960)

An essay in the same volume (p. 81) by John W. Gardner (now Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare) entitled "National Goals in Education," reaffirms for our day the ideal of the Constitution as it regards education: "Our deepest convictions impel us to foster individual fulfillment. We wish each one to achieve the promise that is in him . . . Our devotion to equality . . . asserts that each should be enabled to develop to the full, in his own style and to his own limit."

Some educational corollaries emerge from the above statement and restatements of principles:

1) If the first goal of education is individual self-fulfillment, all other goals, however important, such as preparation for citizenship, preparation for the "the world of work," and assimilation to the "mainstream of American life," become secondary.
2) Our equality before the law and the "self-evident truth" that all men are created equal *do not impose upon any one of us the obligation to be equal,* that is to say, to be the same as everyone else.

3) There are many perfectly legitimate ways of being human.
4) The child's parents and the child himself must have the major voice in determining what his education should be.

So we see the "right to be let alone" places self-fulfillment, self-determined, at the peak of all the desiderata of education.

In contrast to the above, quotations from authoritative sources abound showing that the philosophy which has guided those entrusted with the education of American Indian children has rested squarely on other principles: "protection of the child from the detrimental influence of the home surroundings," "the destruction of tribal ways," "the creation of a new, autonomous, total environment into which the Indian child can be transmigrated so as to remake him into a European personality," "destruction of the appalling religious beliefs and superstitions of the Indians," "eradication of Indian culture as the primary source of Indian impoverishment," "discouragement and eradication of the use of indigenous languages," etc.

In short, the de facto principle has been that the Indian's salvation lies in his ceasing to be what and who he is, that it lies in becoming assimilated by the acceptance of "educative" procedures designed to alienate the child from his own people, beginning with the rule that English shall be the sole language of instruction.

SECTION TWO: *Salient facts and findings about American Indians*

POPULATION, LANGUAGES, AND LITERACY

Total population, all ages (BIA, 1960) 533,000 (including 29,000 Eskimos and Aleuts in Alaska)

Total aged 6-18 (BIA, 1966) 152,114

Enrolled in public schools	86,827
Enrolled in Federal schools	46,154
Enrolled in mission and other schools	8,713
Not in school	7,757
Not located	2,663

Wallace L. Chafe, of the Smithsonian Institution, has said (1962) that of the nearly 300 recognizably separate American Indian languages and dialects still extant — hence the same number of separate tribal groups — only roughly 40% have more than one hundred speakers. Fishman (1966) notes that in the case of about 55% of all languages the remaining speakers are of advanced age, which implies that many of the tongues — each one an irreplaceable miracle no less than the whooping crane — are destined to disappear.

Chafe finds (1965) that there are 64 indigenous languages spoken in the United States including Alaska, by 1000 or more speakers. William C. Sturdevant, also of the Smithsonian, has devised five categories of availability of literacy materials and applied them (as best estimates subject to refinement and correction) to the Chafe data. The information is included in Appendix 3 of these reports.

No one knows exactly what percent of the total Indian population or how many of those of school age, 6-18, retain the use of an Indian language. An estimate made in 1964 with the help of BIA education specialists set the number as 60% of the children in States which

have special Indian schools and 20% in States which place them all in the public schools. This would indicate that slightly over half of the 6-18 group retain use of the mother tongue. There are indications that this estimate is far too low. For example, an unpublished study recently completed by Dr. Nichols of Kansas State University shows that 91% of the Sioux Indians on the Pine Ridge, Rosebud, Crow Creek, and Sisseton reservations in South Dakota learn the Sioux tongue as their first language. A study of the Hopis, Navajos, Papagos, Sioux, Zias, and Zunis (Havighurst and Neugarten 1955) showed that of all these groups the Sioux retained least of their primitive culture. Read together, the data from these studies point to very high language retention among the other more isolated tribal groups.

Achievement In Public Schools

As measured in the Coleman Report (Coleman, 1966) by tests in both verbal and non-verbal skills administered in Fall, 1965, the average minority pupil (except Oriental Americans but including American Indians, Mexican-Americans and Puerto Ricans) scores distinctly lower at every level than the average white pupil. The difference in achievement was consistently greater in the 12th grade than in the 1st grade, which shows that under our present school policies and procedures and in comparison with majority group pupils *Indian children lose ground the longer they stay in school.* Whatever may be the nonschool factors which put minority children at a disadvantage in verbal and non-verbal skills when they enter first grade, the fact is the schools have not overcome them.

The Coleman Report points out that a substantial number of Indian and Mexican-American first graders are in schools in which they are the majority group. This is not true at the 12th grade. Roughly 35% of Indian pupils in first grade are in schools of between 90-100% Indian enrollment. At grade 12, however, less than 10% of Indian pupils are in schools with 80-100% Indian enrollment.

School Environment; Pupil Attitudes

In 1965 only 1% of the Indian children in elementary schools had Indian teachers. One percent were taught by Mexican-Americans, 14% by Negroes, and 83% had "white" teachers. Only one per cent of them had an Indian principal. In the secondary schools 2% of the Indian children had Indian teachers. One per cent were under Mexican-American teachers, 8% were under Negroes, and 88% learned from "white" teachers. No Indian child in secondary school had an Indian principal.

By the teachers' own report, twenty-six percent of the elementary and 24% of the secondary school teachers of the average Indian pupil would prefer not to be teaching Indians. They would prefer to be teaching Anglo-Saxon children.

The same Coleman Report reveals a pupil attitude factor which appears to have a stronger relationship to achievement than do all the "school" factors together. This factor is the extent to which an individual feels that he has some control over his own destiny. Indian

pupils have far less conviction than majority group pupils that they can affect their own environment and future. On the question of "self-concept" the Indian pupils showed the highest percentage answering "below average" to the question "How bright do you think you are?" and other indicators show the Indian pupils in 12th grade to have the lowest self-concept of all minority groups tested. Although of all variables attitudinal variables have the strongest relation to school achievement, *these variables appear to be little influenced by variations in school characteristics.* In sum, the Coleman Report makes a convincing case for the view that student achievement depends largely on forces over which today's schools exercise little control.

SECTION THREE: *Ideals and realities: assimilation without alienation*

Section One, above, postulates the ideal goal of the educator as maximum self-fulfillment for every Indian child. The goal of the statesman has been the elimination of the Indian "problem": the disadvantageous differences between him and the dominant majority. Indian education policy in the past has considered the two goals incompatible and has sacrificed the first one to the second. There has been, especially since the Meriam Report, some ethnocentric lip-service to individual self-fulfillment, but in fact the policy has been seen as disadvantageous, emphasizing every difference between the Indian and the "white" man: his religion, his ethics, his child-rearing practices, etc., — his entire life-style — and has sought to change all of these. The result has been failure far beyond the mere school statistics of retardation, underachievement and dropouts. The official language policy has kept the Indians in the primitive status of non-literate peoples; their languages are used only for oral communication, with minor, inconsequential exceptions noted above in Section Two), and the constant effort to eliminate the differences, forcing each child, in greater or lesser degree, to choose between his own people and the outside world, is nothing less than attempted assimilation by alienation.

The language and alienation policies together have effectively prevented the formation of an Indian intelligentsia and have systematically cut away from the tribes most of their potential leaders. The overall result has tended to keep the Indians in a condition of unleavened peasantry. The educational policies actually followed in the past are thus seen to be self-defeating and in direct opposition to the statesman's goal.

The view taken in this paper is that the sole disadvantageous difference that matters is the extent of the Indian's lack of self-sufficiency, and that self-sufficiency comes only from self-fulfillment at every age level. The recommendations which follow rest on the belief that the ideal goal of the educator and the goal of the statesman are fully compatible and that each could reinforce the other. The recommendations reject as irrelevant (though not as untrue or inconsequential) both the romantic's notion that in the Indian cultures there is much that is worth preserving and the notion that the "white" man's ways are necessarily superior because they are dominant.

In sum, the view taken here is that self-sufficiency—realized through self- fulfillment for each individual Indian child and for each separate

Indian tribe — will not only achieve the statesman's goal, but that it is the surest, quickest road to self-dispersal of the tribes and their eventual assimilation and disappearance. (Whether such a result is to be viewed happily or unhappily is not the concern of this paper.) The reasoning is simple:

(1) if a group is self-sufficient it ceases to be a problem; and (2) in this country the mobility, both social and geographical, of educated people, especially college-educated ones, is very high; and this kind of mobility means living where the children, whether or not they learn the Indian mother tongue, are middle-class youngsters swept along on the sea of middle-class English and the value system which English transmits. (Confirming evidence is found in a study which compared permissive and suppressive cultural contacts between whites and Indians. The initial Yaqui-Spanish contact appears to have been a permissive one, with the result that a fusion of Yaqui and Spanish cultural elements took place in a comparatively short time. Conversely, Tewa-Spanish relations were marked by coercion and suppression of Indian ceremonies and customs, and up to the present time Spanish and Tewa cultural patterns have remained distinct. (Cf. Dozier, 1964.)

The specific recommendations which follow implement the principle of self-determination (including the choice of language) and the belief that the only road of development of a people is that of self-development, including the right to make its own decisions and its own mistakes, educate its own children in its own ways, write its own poems and stories, revere its own gods and heroes, choose its leaders and depose them — in short, to be human its own way and demand respect for that way.

If it is true that society as a whole — in this case each separate tribal society with its own history, language, and system of beliefs and behavior — is inescapably the major shaper and educator of a child (as compared to the much lesser effect of the school) educational policy should seek to strengthen and develop and ennoble the social structure as a whole. The opposite strategy, efforts to weaken or bypass the Indian social structure and lessen its influence on the child, inevitably deprives him of his main source of growth and strength.

Section Four: *Recommendations*

The necessary brevity of this position precludes specific recommendations on every point and situation. The policies enunciated would be applied to the extent of their pertinence in terms of the status outlined above in *Section Two* and as quickly as feasible. Feasibility is not meant to depend, however, on such factors as the death or retirement of supernumerary teachers now employed to work with Indian children, but rather on factors such as the readiness of printed school materials for beginning programs of bilingual instruction.

Education is much more than what happens in the schools. We have seen that the Coleman Report implies one conclusion above all others: that schools bring little influence to bear on a child's achievement that is independent of his background and general social context. This means that it is essential to involve the home and the entire social

group, exalt them and their virtues, and build them up in order to build on them. All of the recommendations have this aim; all seek to develop self-sufficiency through self-fulfillment.

RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Indians should run their schools, determine the curriculum, set fiscal policy, and hire and fire the school administrators, teachers and other employees. (A very promising prototype school which works on this principle is the Rough Rock Indian Demonstration School at Chinle, Arizona.) In the case of public schools which receive Johnson-O'Malley funds, eligibility for the funds should be conditioned on Indian representation on the school board proportional to the number of Indian children enrolled in the system.

2. It should without exception be the policy in the schools and in all other matters that Indians employed with Federal funds for work in association with other Indians should be of the same tribal and mother tongue group as the others with whom they are to work. This means, for example, that Indian teachers, teachers aides, administrators, clerks, janitors, etc., working with the Hopis will be Hopis and have Hopi as their mother tongue. Likewise, every effort should be made to group children on the basis of the language they speak, in order to encourage them to verbalize their experiences, encourage socializing, and strengthen their tribal bonds. W. W. Beatty stated (La Farge, 1942) that "In the majority of cases the Indians who are employed on the Sioux reservations come from Oklahoma, while educated Sioux are sent to the Southwest and Southwest Indians are employed in Oklahoma or the Northwest.")

3. Beginning immediately in the first three grades of all-Indian schools, and in grades 4, 5, and 6 of such schools as soon as a minimal complement of Indian language teaching materials can be prepared, bilingual instruction (Gaarder, 1966) will be instituted.

This will provide (based on the model of the Cuban half of the Coral Way bilingual elementary school in Dade County, Florida) instruction in all areas of the curriculum, except English, during one half of every school day by Indian teachers using their Indian tongue as the medium, and closely coordinated instruction in the same areas of the curriculum, except the Indian tongue, by teachers from the dominant group using English as the medium. In all cases the teachers teach in their mother tongue.

In schools where only a part of the pupils are Indian children, instead of the full 50-50 bilingual program there will be at least one hour of instruction per day through the medium of the Indian language, designed to reinforce all areas of the school curriculum in grades 1-6. The purpose of this entire recommendation is to avoid retardation, strengthen the home-school relationship, and enhance the child's self-concept. (It should be borne in mind that it is much easier for a native speaker to *learn to read* an Indian language with a scientifically developed phonemic alphabet than its for a child speaker of English to *learn to read* English. This fact gives the Indian child a signal

advantage in school over the monolingual English-speaking child. (Cf. Gaarder, 1967.)

4. A program of language development — recording, writing and publication in the Indian (and Eskimo and Aleut) tongues should begin at once, dealing both with Indian history, religion, lore, folk-tales, points of view on current problems, etc., and with the essential subject matter of the school curriculum.

This work could be undertaken for every language which has at least 1000 speakers. In the languages with relatively few speakers the publication program might be limited to those materials needed in grades 1-3 to form a strong bridge to English. For the major languages each people would eventually set the limits of what is desirable and feasible. (Section Two shows roughly the present status of Indian language development. The program envisaged would require help from scientific (descriptive) linguists. It is far from a momumental task and would not be unduly costly if properly managed.)

5. Every effort should be made to develop a strong, mutually-reinforcing relationship between the Indian pupils' parents and the school. The four recommendations above are meant to bring this about. In addition, the school should become a place for other adult-centered activities: a) recording on tape the oral history, lore, etc., of the group for playback in the schools and by radio, and later transcription for editing and publication b) live story-telling by the wits and sages of the tribe; and c) adult literacy classes in both the mother tongue and English. Again it should be borne in mind that with a scientifically-designed phonemic alphabet an adult can learn very easily to read his own language. This means that he quickly masters all of the *mechanics* of reading in any language with Roman script, and thus has a powerful bridge to English.)

6. Every effort should be made to stimulate and encourage the emergence of native leaders in each tribal group. We take note of the statement by W. W. Beatty "that the true native leaders were either ignored or displaced by those who showed subservience to government or church . . . these subservient Indians would not normally have achieved leadership. This is why the reports say that educated Indians cannot be used successfully in the administration of their own tribal groups." We agree with Beatty's advice to seek leaders among the "young Indians who are aggressive, critical, and inclined to be non-cooperative." (LaFarge, 1942)

7. There is need for a graduate study and research center focussed on the history, languages, and culture of American Indians. The same center could coordinate much of the publication of teaching material and other items in the Indian languages.

8. To pupils whose mother tongue is not English and who come to school knowing little or no English, English must inevitably be taught *as a second language*. This does not deny its primacy as the official language of the nation, but means that special teaching methods are required. The self-sufficiency which is the goal of these recommendations *requires that English be learned well by every Indian child*. Bilingual education (the use of the indigenous Indian tongue as a teaching

medium to assure acquisition and mastery of the *content* of the curriculum while English is still being mastered as a *vehicle* of instruction is one half of the strategy to bring this about. The other half is the use of better methods and materials for teaching English, guided by the insights into language found in scientific (descriptive) linguistics.

9. Indian children should preferably not be put in boarding school, and in no case should children of different language groups be put together in such schools. Far preferable, in the view taken here, is a much simpler one-room or hogan-type school close to home, with bilingual instruction given by two different teachers (one Indian-speaking, one English-speaking) even though by ordinary educational standards the simpler school seems to be of far lesser quality.

10. Mere transfer of all Indian children from BIA schools to public schools under State control would remove the seeming anomaly of a Federal agency running local school systems, but this transfer by itself would solve nothing. To be convinced of this one has but to reflect on the quality of the education received by Mexican-American children in the public schools.

11. Action should be taken immediately to remove all religious organizations of other than Indian origin from direct influence in the education of Indian children on reservation or other Federally- or State-controlled property. The purpose of this recommendation is not to abridge in any way freedom of religion among the Indians or hinder them from sending their children to sectarian private schools outside of the reservations, but rather to eliminate a major divisive (and therefore destructive) force which hinders the free self-development of the Indian peoples: dividing the individual within his own mind and each sect from all the others. Quasi-official sanction of the division of Indian peoples among competing sects of white proselytizers should be seen as what it is: the use of Federal or State power to favor one religion over another.

12. Although the educational policy set forth in this paper involves the whole of each Indian society rather than merely its system of schools, the policy can be summarized thus in terms of the reservation schools: bilingual education with each Indian tongue and English given equal time and treatment as mediums of instruction, using approximately equal numbers of same-Indian-language-speaking teachers and English-speaking teachers in the schools, all of which would be administered by same-Indian-language principals and superintendents under same-language school boards, and all of which would seek maximum identification geographically and socially with their constituent families, eliminating all boarding schools not expressly desired by those families, and involving the parents maximally through both direct and representative exercise of power.

Since it is not to be expected that any agency or faction now exercising power in ways contrary to the spirit and letter of these recommendations would voluntarily change those ways, there should be something in the nature of a national commission empowered to set policy for all Federal agencies concerned with the Indians in any way whatsoever, in order to effectuate these recommendations.

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Legislation on Bilingual Education

RAUL MUNIZ

House of Representatives, State of Texas

I want to clearly point out that the following remarks and observations are strictly from the viewpoint of a legislator vitally concerned with the field of bilingual education.

When I began to formulate my ideas in regard to this paper, the State Legislature was considering House Bill 72: a bill which made the teaching of Spanish from the first through the eighth grade mandatory throughout the state. To me this was a vital development in the realm of bilingual education. Unfortunately, there was a strong move against the bill, and as a result delaying tactics were applied in the legislative process. Here was a bill that had been recommended by Governor John Connally and had become a part of the State Democratic Party Platform. Yet to my knowledge, no strong and meaningful effort was exerted, pro or con, by any bilingual committee, group or association.

Doctors, lawyers, contractors, engineers, teachers, and many other groups, all specialists and authorities in their own fields, have strong working associations in regard to many situations, especially state legislation. They are not political groups, but groups of people willing to spend a little time and effort in the development of their cause. Most of these groups have local and state units; in most cases their top leaders and performers are selected from the field of public relations. As leaders, they consult with their state officials and are soon considered as the proper authorities in their field. They communicate regularly with proper agencies and present valuable information to committees of the legislature, where each bill faces a test in the most important phase of its development. Here interested individuals provide the committee membership with necessary information regarding the bill, as well as advice on the next step to be taken. Shortly thereafter a follow-up process is begun.

Keep in mind that there are many more factors involved in the complete effort of taking a bill through the entire legislative process. I am merely trying to illustrate as simply as I possibly can the idea of protecting and developing your interests and your cause through the process of legislation.

The Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers has done a tremendous job. There is much more to be done in this modern and ever-changing society. The complexities of future demands require the best in minds and leadership. You have come a long way, but you must go further in order to have modern, realistic, and effective methods that will provide nothing short of a first-rate education for all bilingual students. You must be recognized throughout the state and nation as the prime authority on bilingual education. To accomplish this you must, at all times, have the facilities and resources to substantiate your recognition. You must have the time and integrity to contact and consult the proper agencies that are directly involved in

carrying out your goal. You must be able to see your plans, dreams, and sound objectives not only on paper, but implemented before the student — the only place where they can help.

To establish this basic groundwork many hours will have to be spent in the field of research. Significant data will have to be compiled, evaluated, and applied to the local situation. Secondly, proposed legislation should be weighed by proper authorities within your group. Once it is analyzed, it must be brought before your membership and before the tax-paying public.

With the rapid change of all structures within our society, you must compile your evidence and have it ready to follow the proper channels into becoming legislation. You must be the vehicle to implement future legislation on behalf of better bilingual education.

Texas is a wide-open frontier for bilingual education; take advantage of this fantastic resource. I am sure that the Federal and State Governments will be more than willing to combine their efforts and facilities to carry out an efficient bilingual educational program. Your group can be, and I personally feel should be, the instrument to guide the course. I feel that you can be true leaders and developers of bilingual education.

As you strive in the promotion of bilingual education, remember the words of Ralph Waldo Emerson: "The world advances by impossibilities achieved."

Teaching Content in a Foreign Language

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No one can deny that the past decade has been an eventful one in the area of FL teaching. Financial support for NDEA Institutes and public backing for increased foreign language study have fostered a positive change of attitude toward the concept of learning a FL for oral communication as well as for reading and writing. Despite the gains that have been made, however, there has been a slow but certain skepticism concerning just *what* it is that students are being taught to enable them to communicate — just *what* is the content of their discourse, both oral and written?

In July of this year, Dr. William Merhab, Associate Professor of Foreign Languages at the University of Michigan, spoke to the participants of the NDEA FL Leadership Institute at Central Washington State College in Ellensburg, Washington. He cautioned, "It is very possible that in the FL revolution there has not been enough change. Many educators believe that we have not added nor transported enough nor brought in new materials. We still talk to each other only. A FL teacher may teach history, but more often than not, it is a French teacher's version of history or a Russian teacher's version, as the case may be."

Is it true that FL teachers are still too narrow in their scope, too clannish — and that they keep too much to themselves?

The area of greatest hope has been FLES with its promise of an eventual long sequence of FL study, so necessary for a master of the added dimension of oral communication. What is happening there? In their article, "FLES: In Search of Discipline and Content" (DFL Bulletin, March 1967), Filomena Peloro del Olmo and Guillermo del Olmo, strike a somewhat somber note:

> "There are members of the profession who through ignorance or innate complacency believe that everything is just fine in FLES. It is not impossible to attend professional meetings where the entire time is devoted to patting ourselves on the back for the fine job that we have done. It is high time for some of us to take off our rose-colored glasses, and it is our duty to the profession to fight against self-satisfaction, particularly when it is not based on realities. The profession, if it cares at all about FLES, must explore and establish means of training some of the future elementary school teachers so that they may assume real FLES teaching responsibilities."

The responsibilities or objectives, which are stated in the article, concentrate on the techniques to be used for acquiring certain basic skills. The one objective dealing with content reads: "Reproduce accurately a body of meaningful, memorized material." The content of

the material is not defined; however, the authors do state that "one of the urgent tasks facing the profession with regard to FLES is to clear up the vagueness regarding what should be taught, how it should be taught and by whom it should be taught." Criteria must be devised. they believe, to differentiate between genuine FLES programs and the over-abundant "non-FLES" programs.

On another front, another word of caution is heard. In a fascinating analysis, "We Need a Communications Grammar" (to appear in GLOSSA, Volume II) Dr. William E. Bull of UCLA, says that a "deficit of knowledge" has been built right into present-day FL programs. These courses, he continues, lack techniques for instruction and fail to give students needed cues for making choices in guided-discovery learning situations. Dr. Bull also adds that the attrition rate in the advanced levels of FL study are almost as high as they were in the "traditional" grammar-translation classes. He places much of the drop-out rate on the "deficit of knowledge" which keeps building up and finally leads to inevitable frustration on the part of the student. To combat this "deficit of knowledge" he insists that texts will have to contain well-structured programmed material. To quote:

> "There can, consequently, be no significant reduction in deficit of knowledge which the students must overcome in the current programs until the profession designs a grammar which provides all the information needed to make all the decisions necessary to generate an original sentence from scratch."

A different kind of an attack on the problem of content is being made in various sections of the country — experimentation with inter-disciplinary studies involving foreign language. The idea is not a new one although actual cross-discipline teaching is still none too prevalent Two strong arguments for teaching another discipline in a FL are: 1) the student can choose from a wealth of subjects — geography, history, political science, and many others — as well as literature; 2) he can earn a credit in the foreign language and in the discipline at the same time — a double credit. In an overloaded curriculum the latter could prove to be a boon to many a good but harried student as well as to the administrators.

Recently, an eight-week unit on "Latin American Studies" was planned and implemented in Delaware by Mr. Charles W. Grassel (in English) and an identical unit (in Spanish) by Mr. Hernan Navarro. Mr. Navarro reports that "in an effectively controlled experiment in Brandywine High School, Wilmington, Delaware, forty-five students of Spanish at the fourth year level, mostly sophomores, in intact classes, learned as much social studies in Spanish as did nineteen students, mostly seniors, in a regular class conducted in English by Charles E. Grassel, a highly qualified social studies teacher of the School District."

Lectures and discussion were the techniques used since all necessary materials were not available in Spanish. The students were asked "to concentrate their attention in the content area, social studies, rather

than in the language, Spanish." The experiment, according to Mr. Navarro, was not designed to test progress in learning Spanish because "the acquisition of significant knowledge of an FL involves a much longer process." He does say, however, that the next logical step would be to test the progress of the students in Spanish by means of a course in social studies "in order to establish a certain level at which to introduce bilingual education."

If non-native students can profit from interdisciplinary studies involving a FL, there is no doubt that bilinguals, who already have control of the basic structure of their native language and who command a sizeable vocabulary, would or could profit immeasurably more in a variety of courses taught in the vernacular; however, for them, too, there may be some question as to the desirability of using a lecture-discussion technique, which all too often can lead to a passive, uninteresting learning atmosphere.

From Miami, Florida, a new text in English as a Second Language, to be used in the junior high school, has been developed for the teaching of content and language simultaneously. It may give some insight to anyone who may be interested in structuring an integrated course for social studies and language study in the vernacular. The text, *Man Is an Island*, prepared by the Curriculum Development Laboratory (ESEA Learning Laboratories, Board of Public Instruction, Miami, Florida) combines social studies with the study of the English language. In the margin of the teacher's manual the objectives for each lesson or drill are spelled out, and to the right of the objectives on each page there are there are corresponding activities drawn from the social studies content. The activities may be pattern drills for teaching structure of the language; suggestions for role playing; or guidelines for reading, writing, interpreting passages; learning new vocabulary and the like. A few of the marginal notes gleaned at random from the teacher's manual (Chapter II, "My Family Needs Me") may give a slight idea of some of the diversity and scope of the material:

1. "Identifying how family patterns are acquired."
2. Using *is* and *are* with *-ing*."
3. "Discussing how family patterns can effect behavior in broader social contexts."
4. "Using *don't* and *doesn't* in negative statements."
5. "Practicing reading skills."
6. "Identifying meanings."
7. "Discovering concepts."
8. "Identifying how family patterns are acquired."
9. "Identifying character traits and cause-effect relationships."
10. "Identifying markers of verbs and nouns."
11. "Writing a report."

Another possible source of help for content in FL classes is to be found in an article which appeared in the special TESOL edition of *The Florida FL Reporter*, Spring 1967. It is "Literature and Cross-culture Communication in the Course in English for International Students," by William F. Marquardt. "Knowledge of deep structure of the target language," Marquardt says, "and perception of underlying values, assumptions, beliefs, and intergroup attitudes of the target culture are now considered as imporant as control of structural patterns in cross-culture communication. Literature has again been found ready to suggest ways of meeting these new needs. This does not mean, however, that one literary work is as good as another as material for training in cross-culture communication."

In his study Marquardt has suggested, in order of ascending difficulty, titles of narrative prose, essays, short plays, poems which meet the language criteria for selecting and sequencing works. He has further listed, in order of ascending difficulty also, some categories of works which meet the culture criteria. Finally he lists a number of techniques 1- for teaching literature to a foreigner for enabling him to communicate with Americans more effectively, and 2- for helping the student increase his cultural understanding "obtained from the literary work."

Marquardt, like a number of other educators, points to a need for contrastive analysis not only of linguistic divergence but of cultural divergence too. He suggests a list of writings which may give a new perspective on the "uses of literature."

One of the more controversial issues in the teaching of FL content today concerns literature. There are those who would ban it completely and those who would include it to the exclusion of all other content. It may be quite safe to say that literature has become the whipping boy for all the ills that have beset language arts programs. It has even been named the culprit responsible for the overwhelming attrition in advanced FL classes — the almost complete drop-out of boys in particular.

Could it be possible that not literature *per se* but rather what has been done to it in the classroom is what is to blame for the many lacklustre classes at the advanced levels? Is a policy of forging ahead in reading with "too much, too soon" perpetuating the system of disastrous decoding which is still all too common in many classes?

The vocabulary controlled, slightly programmed readers, similar to the *Reading for Meaning* series, written in accordance with the criteria of the committee headed by the late George Scherer, may eventually help to bridge a wide gap between language and literature. They will not be very helpful, however, unless they contain both authentic cultural and linguistic patterns.

One of the most difficult facets of FL teaching is in the realm of the teaching of cultural concepts. Just what culture is, how it can be pinned down and identified in a body of material for teaching as content, seems to be, as yet, one of the "gray areas" of FL teaching. The subject has been tossed around for a long time, but all too often the teacher ends up — unwittingly — making false assumptions and

superficial value judgments, drawing lifeless stereotypes, or simply ignoring the cultural features embedded in unauthentic language simply because he does not know what to look for. The question is not so much concerned with whether the cultural pattern is to be found in a literary masterpiece, in a news bulletin, or in a sports or society section of a foreign newspaper but rather, it is concerned with *what* it is that one must look for: the exact bit of kinesics or paralanguage or personality traits or verified assumption or perspectives of the value system of a culture or "what-have-you" that differentiates or unites the target culture with the student's culture.

In this regard, Edward T. Hall's new book, *The Hidden Dimension* (Doubleday, 1966) may well have many implications for the teaching of exact cultural patterns. In his book Hall promulgates a new theory — proxemics — the "interrelated observations and theories of man's use of space as a specialized elaboration of culture." He cuts across ethnic lines both in the United States and in the world at large to show that "people cannot act or inter-act at all in any meaningful way except through the medium of culture." Chapter XI gives a detailed account of proxemic patterns, which point similarities and differences in how Americans and Germans, Englishmen, and Frenchmen perceive "social and personal space." Chapter XII is a similar analysis which involves Americans and the Japanese and the Arab Worlds.

Two short quotations concerning Hall's observations on art and literature may not be amiss here. Speaking of art, he says: "The artist himself, his work, and the study of art in a cross-cultural context all provide valuable information not just of content but even more important of the *structure* of man's different perceptual worlds." Of literature he says: "If one examines literature rather than content, it will shed light on historical trends and shifts in sense modalities. These differences may not, however, be equally clear to those who read for content alone."

Another person who has shed some very specific light on culture as content is Dr. Howard Lee Nostrand. In his study, "Describing and Teaching Language and Literature," which appears in *Trends in Language Teaching*, edited by Albert Valdman (McGraw-Hill, 1966), he explains in detail how to go about selecting, defining, organizing, and teaching the essentials from "that vast panorama of a people's way of life with its varied geographical regions, social classes, and all the types and interests of individual persons." For good measure, too, he includes *Criteria for Judging the Sociocultural Aspect of Instructional Materials and Course Plans.*

It is up to the textbook writers to incorporate the findings of scholars into materials and/or to identify the cultural patterns inherent in readings for use by those who need to be guided to discover them. There should be no need for guesswork on the part of the teacher; culture has a definite content which needs to be taught exactly and accurately. It cannot be left to a mere mention gained from some hidden intuition or cursory observation.

The revolution in the teaching of foreign languages may yet be pushed beyond its narrow confines into interdisciplinary areas. Perhaps the latent depths of sociology, anthropology, history, psychology, and

the arts — to name a few — inherent in the discipline of FL itself may be uncovered as teachers gain control of new dimensions of knowledge. And it may well be that the FL teacher of the future will have to specialize in content areas in order to give purpose, meaning, and relevance to his use of the foreign language vehicle.

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Teaching Content in Spanish in the Elementary School

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Today's increasing national and international commitments make the knowledge of a second languge important to all individuals. Never in the history of our country has there been a more pressing need for more language learning by more children in more schools.

The research burgeoning in the area of second language learning supports the belief of many language specialists that language study should begin as early as kindergarten or in the first grade. The emphasis on the development of oral skills based on our knowledge of the nature of language and of language learning necessitates a longer time sequence than has been customary. Therefore, the desirability of introducing foreign languages in the elementary schools can no longer be denied. Early training in language study, if properly presented, can enhance and reinforce the knowledge gained in areas such as science, social studies or reading. The inclusion of the appropriate second language in the curriculum to teach content in the elementary schools will definitely dictate the success of such an endeavor.

In areas such as the southwestern part of the United States there exist large concentrations of persons of different cultural backgrounds and languages. One of the largest of these is the Spanish-speaking population; therefore; it would be logical to teach them Spanish as the second language in the elementary school. The assumption is that by achieving competency, maturity, and oral and written fluency in the Spanish language, the learnings acquired for Spanish can be transferred to the task of learning English. More important, their success in Spanish may provide a strong motivating force to do well in other areas of learning. With this premise in mind, the University of Texas San Antonio Language Research Project, now in its fourth year of operation, was conceived. The primary purpose of this study is to develop oral language, both English and Spanish, through an intensive audio-lingual approach, i. e., basic sentence structures, in dialogue form, practiced orally with the teacher doing the modeling for the purpose of full habituation and accurate speech usage. This approach is the technique for developing fluency in both languages.

To achieve the instruction in Spanish for these school beginners, a series of lesson plans * was devised. The content used for oral language development in both languages involved the areas of science, social studies, and reading. Short, simple sentences in the present tense (later increasing in complexity and involving several basic transformations) were utilized to present the concepts to be learned in the areas mentioned above. Phonemic problems are dealt with as they occur within the language structures, rather than dictating or restricting the choice of language. Special drills, games, rhymes are used to help the children overcome these phonemic conflicts between Spanish and English. After the children were able to handle these sentence patterns

with as few errors as possible, provisions were made to provide an opportunity to use this language in an informal communication situation.

Particularly important about the lessons being used in Spanish is the emphasis on learning *through* the language rather than concentrating solely on the language itself. By teaching these children the subject matter in their native language, in this case Spanish, they are able to concentrate more on the meaning conveyed in the sentence patterns of the lesson plans than on learning the sound system of the language as must those children being instructed in English. Hence, these children are relatively free from the primary task of concentrating on the many stumbling blocks created by a language which is very often completely foreign to them.

Also important is the fact that the usage of correct grammatical and phonological forms via the audiolingual technique will provide the children with the linguistic models necessary to remediate dialectical errors and concomitantly enhance the range of vocabulary and fluency in their native language. Since the lesson plans are taught in the Spanish language, these children learn much more rapidly, since they do not have to concentrate on both the language and meanings being developed as do the children being instructed in English. In most cases, the children's main concern is the task at hand, i. e., the relationships of the concepts which are made more meaningful because they are taught in a language they can understand. Being able to understand helps to give these children that crucial confidence which underlies success in academic learning, and helps to give them the confidence which underlies success in academic learning, and helps to give them the confidence and abilities needed for learning English.

It is hoped that the results from this study can provide substantial evidence to support the hypothesis that instruction in the native language of the learner through the use of audio-lingual techniques and carefully sequenced plans for developing cognitive abilities produces measurable academic success. If so, it can provide the support for further expansion of a bilingual program in the schools for children whose first or native language is other than English. Of significance also will be the implication that by having such a program, English-speaking children could acquire another language by the same process.

* These plans are available and can be obtained by writing to Dr. Thomas D. Horn, Director, Department of Curriculum and Instruction, The University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

The Teaching of Social Studies in a Foreign Language at the High School Level

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A few experimental programs are abroad in our land which may affect profoundly the curriculum in the public schools of the United States. This small but growing movement concerns the teaching of regular subjects in the curriculum in a foreign language and also presages offering a curriculum to satisfy a wide range of student interest within the foreign language program itself. The primary goal of the movement is to produce the bilingual student,[1] who can explain his own culture and can communicate his depth of understanding of another people, as the usual product of our schools rather than the rarity. This paper focuses attention on work that is being carried on and contemplated in one area of the curriculum, the social studies.

A review of the literature concerning experimental programs in the social studies,[2] in their attempts to strengthen motivation and holding power in the foreign languages, shows these common major purposes: 1) To provide objective data in order to measure the effect of study of the social studies on language learning and the effect of the foreign medium on acquisition and mastering of the social studies content; (2) To provide the student a view of history through the eyes of another culture; 3) To broaden the student interest base of foreign language use to include structured courses in subject areas other than language per se, as, for example, literature, and civilization; (4) To work toward consolidation of foreign language with other content areas, thereby reducing the total curricular load by making it possible for a high-level foreign language student to enroll, for example, in a course in Modern European history taught in French and receive credits in both French and social studies. In summary, these experimental programs are creating foreign language courses in the social studies area as an alternative to the regular upper level foreign language courses.

Certain aspects of three studies concerned with the teaching of a regularly scheduled social studies content in a foreign language warrant attention. In "controlled experiment to determine the extent to which the coordinate study of German and world history can be effective in the more rapid mastering of German," a project funded by the Division of Elementary-Secondary Research of the Office of Education in a Sussex, Wisconsin school district,[3] three groups of students were selected, one for experimental purposes and two for control purposes. The experimental group received two hours of instruction daily, one hour devoted to the experimental world history course taught in German and the second hour devoted to the regular German II course. The first control group was enrolled in second year German and served as the control in language competency, and the second control group pursued the regular world history course in English. Results re-

vealed that the experimental group did not manifest any appreciable loss of knowledge of historical influence in relation to the second control group. One would have to observe that greater language competency would have been expected since students in the experimental group were exposed to German two hours a day and those in the control group only one hour.

In one of the nine pilot programs in teaching of a social studies content in a foreign language in Virginia schools sponsored by the State Department of Education, "David MacIntyre teaches world history to seventeen fifth year French students at Arlington Wakefield High School. This world history course parallels the one taken by other to seventeen fifth year French students at Arlington's Wakefield High students in English. The students were pretested and will be tested again at the end of the year for achievement in both French and history. (Results of the total program of experimentation in the State will be published during the summer of 1967.) Testing of last year's students, however, shows that they were able to progress as well as their class-mates who took the two subjects as single courses. A student enrolled in the present course made the following comment: 'We get the French point of view on history. For example, our book devotes two lines to the Monroe Doctrine — and five chapters to the French Revolution.' Pearl S. McDonald, foreign language supervisor for Arlington Schools, calls the students' accomplishments a double gain because they do it in the time allotted to one course." [4]

Likewise, Hernan Navarro, a Fulbright Curriculum Specialist from Colombia, in a program planned by the State Department of Public Instruction of Delaware, in a highly controlled experiment dealing with Latin American studies in Spanish, identical in coverage and conceptual level to the English medium unit, found that in Brandywine High School forty-seven students of Spanish in their fourth level, mostly sophomores, learned as much social studies content through Spanish as did nineteen students, mostly seniors, in a regular course conducted in English by William Grassel, a social studies teacher of the school district. Mr. Grassel, Mr. Navarro, and Paul McClary, regular Spanish teacher, worked cooperatively in this venture, at times in a team-teaching situation. Typical comments from pupils in their personal evaluation of the experience were these:

"I greatly improved my capacity to think in Spanish."

"I loved all the stuff about the current Latin American situation and United States relations. I have never learned so much or had so much fun with a Spanish course."

"Having someone speak Spanish continuously was better in learning vocabulary and grammar than most of the drills we usually do."

"It was very interesting getting a Latin American's view of the policies of the U. S. and the reasons for the actions of Latin American countries."

"It gives me a feeling of real achievement, being able to learn a social studies course in Spanish. I would like to continue with something like this."

Responses to the following questions were these:

1. Do you think that you can handle a full year course of social studies taught entirely in Spanish?

   Yes — 39

   No — 5

2. Would such a course challenge you?

   Yes — 42

   No — 2

Such experimental programs at the high school level, although limited, are bringing into focus areas to be considered carefully in building strong bilingual programs in the social studies, among them the teacher whose training in the social studies has included possibly courses taught through the medium of his foreign language. In addition, his study should have provided him a critical analysis of the total life and thought processes of the people whose language he is internalizing, with particular emphasis on the role of that culture in the world today. Such a study implies that his curriculum include more than a study of society as interpreted by literary talent.

Of paramount importance also is the availability of a variety of materials in the second language. Primary sources are important. Foreign textbooks, translations of already existing materials by experimental teachers, bilingual materials produced, for example, by the Pan American Union, are serving as basic materials in some of the programs in action now. The need is great for experts in the fields of the social studies and foreign languages to join in creating materials in the second language, some of which will parallel present courses, some of which will develop into additional electives. These needed materials with those already available will provide a wider range of cross-cultural references to help broaden the vision of our students.

Programs in bilingual education are not a new phenomena. It is with particular interest that one reads the following excerpt from an article by Harry B. Ellis: "Hundreds of German boys and girls will prepare to learn history, geography, current events, and eventually chemistry and biology in the English language this September . . . The aim, according to Dr. Heinz Fisher-Wollpert, director of the Goethe Gymnasium, is to help break down national prejudices and to equip German students to live and work in an international atmosphere." [5]

Dynamic leadership is needed in our country to bring together all persons interested in participating in bilingual experimental programs in the social studies as well as in other fields, and in moving these programs out of the experimental stage into the schools as common practice.

ADDENDUM

High Schools Where Experimentation in Teaching Social Studies in a Foreign Language is Taking Place or Has Taken Place:

St. Sergius High School of New York, 1190 Park Ave., Russian language, literature, art, music, history, etc., in Russian.

Junius Rose High School, Greenville, N.C., World Affairs in Spanish.

State Department of Public Instruction (one high school), Illinois, World History.

Cleveland High School, St. Louis, Mo., Advanced geography in French.

Point Loma High School, San Diego, Calif., World Geography in Spanish.

T. C. Williams High School, Alexandria, Virginia, History of France.

George Washington High School Alexandria, Virginia, History of France.

Hammond High School, Alexandria, Virginia, History of France.

Wakefield High School, Arlington, Virginia, World History.

Washington and Lee High School, Arlington, Virginia, World History.

Robert E. Lee High School, Fairfax, Virginia, History of Latin America.

McLean High School, Fairfax, Virginia, History of France.

Thomas Jefferson High School, Richmond, Virginia, World in the 20th Century.

Armstrong High School, Richmond, Virginia, World in the 20th Century.

Brandywine High School, Alfred I. duPont School District, Wilmington, Delaware, Latin American Studies in Spanish corresponding to unit taught in English.

Newton South High School, Newton, Massachusetts, Contemporary Society in French corresponding to course taught in English.

Ohio, United States History taught in French.
University High School, Morgantown, West Virginia, (Core program in German seven years ago).

1. **UNESCO *The use of Vernacular Languages in Education*- Monographs on Fundamental Education VIII, Paris 1958, pp. 36, 37. A report from Wales states that the teaching of Welsh as a subject is largely ineffective and does not lead to fluency, unless there is also use of it as a medium of instruction in one or more other subjects, i. e., as a natural medium of communication.**

2. **See Addendum.**

3. **Project OE-6-10-178, *An Exploratory Study in Teaching World History in German*, Board of Education, Common School District, Joint No. 16, Sussex, Wisconsin.**

4. ***Washington Post*, "250 Students Take History in Second Language," Tuesday, March 28, 1967.**

5. ***Christian Science Monitor*, "Learning in English," Harry B. Ellis, Frankfurt, Germany, Saturday, June 10, 1967.**

The Teaching of College Courses in a Foreign Language

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With the ever-increasing need for the citizens of this country to develop an international awareness and a national preparation for active participation in international affairs, either on the domestic or on the foreign scene, no academic discipline at any level of education can meet the challenge so successfully as the study of a foreign language. But there must be a revolutionary change in the objectives for foreign language study and in the relationship of a foreign language *per se* to knowledge which is acquired and can be transmitted in that language.

It is an old cliché that the bilingual man is worth two men; I submit that we should reexamine this cliché, thoroughly and at once. The bilingual man is, it is true, his own intrepreter and his own spokesman. But what is more important is the content of his discourse. This is the age of the specialist, of constant refinement in a chosen profession until a man can at least survive the competition with his colleagues, or better yet, surpass them in contribution to the world's demands. I submit that a man's needs in any country are quickly becoming the world's needs; or in terms of any "service-minded" individual, the world's problems are quickly becoming those of each individual. Therefore, all men must become international specialists, whether they will it or not. Each must choose his speciality of competence, be it engineering, education, medicine, veterinary science, nutrition, or any other field; each must choose his geographical area of comprehension and influence; each must be prepared to define and defend his own culture and values in a rapidly shrinking world. Be assured of one thing in the very near future: other peoples of other languages and cultures may not seek our aid; they will however, force us to judge them and to take action toward them. It is obvious that we cannot isolate ourselves any longer linguistically, professionally, or socially.

In Elbert Covell College we teach subject matter courses in a foreign language for very definite reasons, primarily because we are preparing young men and women to become inter-American specialists in the social, political, and economic interplay which will continue to increase between this country and the Spanish-speaking countries of the Western Hemisphere. Specifically, our program defines the following quietly revolutionary objectives for foreign language mastery:

1. The use of the foreign language as a medium for acquiring and transmitting knowledge of an academic discipline.
2. The maintenance of student interest and enrollment in the development of foreign language competency as they mature chronologically and professionally.

These objectives are producing the following results among the students:

1. Many young men and women are becoming bilingual without "majoring" in the language or literature or planning to become teachers of a foreign language. They will be bilingual economists, government employees, physicists, school administrators, public relations employees, veterinarians, elementary school teachers, university professors, etc.

2. Those who do plan to become teachers of Spanish in this country are preparing themselves also to become teachers of English as a second language to work in a Spanish-speaking country or to serve bilingual education in the Southwest of the United States.

3. These specialists have developed an international awareness of contemporary social, political, educational, scientific and economic conditions in Spanish-speaking countries and are prepared for active participation in international relations on the foreign or domestic scene.

4. Their traditional American social consciousness has grown to include a professional interest and capability in tackling the problems of other countries and those evolved in this country as a result of foreign affairs.

5. They have enriched their vocabularies and modes of expression in two languages in many academic areas, particularly in their field of emphasis.

6. They have earned the personal satisfaction and confidence of a command of meaningful information in two languages.

The teachers have been forced to create new materials and techniques.

Learning and teaching activities include the following:

1. Many different kinds of evaluative and instructional tests. A constant essay type test is too time consuming for the student during the early stages. Until his facility in the language increases, sentence answers, word answers, completion of partial statements, true-false questions, and the like must also be devised.

2. Much illustrative and demonstrative materials. Maps, charts, pictures, objects, magazines, and all other kinds of visual aids, plus demonstrations, as in a science class, create bridges for the student from the foreign language to understanding.

3. Much use of cognates, much pictorial language, the use of many synonyms and antonyms in ever decreasing number as vocabulary increases.

4. The varying of activities related to student interest span: lectures, questions and answers, discussions, individual student reports, student panels, written assignments in class, group projects, etc. by the teacher.

5. The preparation by the teacher of outlines, study guides, and questions to aid in mastery of the assignments.

6. The requirement of the student to make outlines, summaries, oral and written reports, questions and answers.

7. Techniques to develop reading for comprehension rather than for translation: the search for predicates; for the "who did what" of a sentence; for introductory or summary sentences; for parallel or contrastive statements in a paragraph; the explanation of key words.

8. Instruction in note-taking and the reporting of notes.

9. In summary, the promotion of foreign language learning, programmed, but of secondary importance to subject matter learning.

The teacher must be sympathetic and patient. The student must be rewarded for understanding and reporting subject matter information, regardless of his foreign language errors. With careful organization and presentation of material on the part of the teacher, and his conscious attention at first to vocabulary and structure, the challenge is not too great for that student who is interested in the subject matter. In fact, Biology or History of the United States, or Problems of American Democracy, or Algebra taught in a foreign language adds zest to the class for both student and teacher. As one of our freshman, who had had two years of high school Spanish recently wrote: "In my classes, *Historia de los Estados Unidos* and *Biología,* I am learning the subjects better than when I took them in English while I am learning Spanish quicker than in my Spanish class . . . (Intermediate Spanish)"

More than proficient in a foreign language, this student is becoming bilingually knowledgeable in basic educational requirements, electives, and a major area of professional emphasis. Surely this product of a revolutionary change in foreign language objectives will be better prepared than you and I to enter the difficult era of rough-edged international relations now at our door.

REPORT III: Bilingual Programs in the Southwest

Bilingual Education in Arizona

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The State of Arizona has for many years been aware of the contributions made by its bilingual citizenry. It has also realized some of the educational and social problems faced by some of these people due to language deficiencies, particularly English, and to some extent cultural differences.

In language development one should not fail to recognize the fact that the needs of individuals of Spanish surnames vary from school district to school district and from State to State. There are individuals with Spanish surnames who do not speak English. On the other hand there are individuals with Spanish surnames who do not speak Spanish. Within these two points there are varying degrees of competence. Consequently, one cannot set up one "bilingual" program that will satisfy the needs of the varying language demands of all individuals. We have to identify and describe the "bilingual" problem in a particular area and then prescribe. After all, a program may be developed to serve Tolleson, Arizona, a known impact area for migrant workers, and yet this same program might be a complete failure in an area such as North Phoenix or the border-town of Nogales.

Many have, in addition to language problems, cultural problems. That is, they need to identify themselves with their immediate American society — their school and their community. All ethnic groups should be encouraged and guided to take part in school and community activities such as athletics, plays, clubs, dances and community projects. Let them know that they *do* belong.

In order to accomplish the aforementioned we have to train teachers to understand the family structure and the way of life of Americans of Indian, Spanish and Mexican extractions.

Many school districts and organizations, in conjunction with the SDPI, are working toward this end. The following examples of projects going on within the State will better demonstrate what is taking place at all levels. These examples are only a fraction of the programs that are now in existence. However, we recognize the need for more legislation which will provide more funds to further develop our programs.

Programs for the educationally and culturally deprived (including pre-school and kindergarten programs: Douglas, Eloy, Phoenix, Willcox, Window Rock, Winslow, Yuma.

Elementary and secondary programs in language arts: Benson, Casa Grande, Eloy, Miami, Peoria, Phoenix, Roll, Safford, Snowflake, Solomonville, Tucson, Winslow.

Projects in special education: Douglas, Eloy, Ft. Thomas, Marana, Phoenix, Tucson, Whiteriver, Winslow, Yuma.

Programs in speech and hearing therapy: Kayenta, Phoenix, Tucson, Winslow.

Programs in English as a second language: Gilbert, Palo Verde, Peoria, Sasabe, Solomonville, Somerton, Tucson, Yuma.

Cultural enrichment programs: Camp Verde, Casa Grande, Concho, Coolidge, Elfrida, Mesa, Naco, Palo Verde, Peoria, Phoenix, Tucson, Yuma.

Curriculum materials centers: Avondale, Buckeye, Flagstaff, Florence, Glendale, Miami, Patagonia, Peoria, Pima, Phoenix, Safford, Solomonville, Williams.

Health services, food, and clothing: Bisbee, Concho, Coolidge, Eloy, Ft. Thomas, Palo Verde, Pearce, Peoria, Phoenix, Sanders, San Simon, Solomonville, Stanfield, Tolleson, Willcox, Winslow.

There are many diverse types of programs in progress here; they include English as a second language; improved educational opportunities; remedial programs in subjects such as English, mathematics, and physical fitness; developing language and cultural concepts for non-English speaking students; team-teaching, diagnostic, and remedial activities; reinforcement and improvement of the learning environment; saturation programs of reading and guidance, etc.

One of the major problems of bilingual education in Arizona is related to serving the special educational needs of migratory children. With reference to these needs, the following should be taken into consideration:

1. *Regular school attendance.* These children because of economic, social, and environmental conditions maintain poor attendance records in their attendance areas. Parents' attitude toward schools, based on their past experiences, is reflected on children. Specialized programs and attitude flexibility of schools and teachers would improve attendance.

2. *Kindergarten and Preschool programs.* Specialized preschool activities for migrant children would aid in developing attitudes, provide needed health and nutritional foundation and create a better educational atmosphere for a smoother transition into the primary level curriculum.

3. *Language instruction for Non-English Speakers.* The school should provide instruction in the English language for children who either do not speak or have a limited speaking knowledge of standard English.

4. *Specialized Personnel.* Migrant educational programs demand special preparation for teachers of target curriculum areas — language development and counseling.

5. *Educational Materials.* The educational community must provide for the selection or development of educational materials most suited to the needs of the migrant child for basic education.

6. *Units of Instruction.* Units must be built around the experiences of a migrant child in speech, reading, writing, and listening skills consisting of six to eight week blocks of time. It would provide a flexibility to move in and out of a program.

7. *Health and Nutrition.* Health programs based on the practical health needs of the migrant child would be more meaningful.

8. *Psychological Services.* Psychological services to help migrant children feel welcome, wanted and appreciated should be provided.

9. *Adequate Facilities.* Schools in impact areas should be provided with the proper facilities and equipment to more effectively carry out programs.

10. *Personal and Vocational Guidance.* Total family involvement in an educational program leading to vocational improvement should be created.

11. *Expand Cultural Horizons.* Emphasis by the school and community to broaden the migrant child's cultural development should be implemented.

12. *A Standardized Record Transfer System.* Adequate records including pertinent characteristic information and a system between states for their rapid transmittal is vitally needed.

13. *In-Service Training of Teachers.* Training in methods and materials for those persons selected as teachers of migrant children in the various local educational agencies is needed.

14. *Family Involvement.* Emphasis should be placed on the family unit and what it contributes to the school and community.

15. *Health Follow-Up.* Provisions should be made whereby a child's immediate health needs may be attended to either by the school or local community agencies.

16. *Community Involvement.* Committees and local civic and social organizations should work to create a better understanding of the problems concerning migrant children and families and help redirect unfavorable attitudes the community may have about migrants.

17. *Interstate Cooperation.* There should be an interchange of methods and supplementary curriculum materials between states that share the responsbility for educational life of the migrant child.

The needs of the migrant child are numerous and the concentrated and coordinated effort of the public schools and other educational agencies implementing specific programs may help migrant children raise their level of skills in reading, and improve their ability to function more satisfactorily in our contemporary society through the acquisition of skills in citizenship, health habits and living with others. Project Title I, P. L. 89-10 as amended 1966 provides grants to State Educational Agencies for the development of migrant education programs.

Another problem in Arizona related to bilingual education is that of Indian education. There are approximately 80,000 full blooded Indians in Arizona, 33,000 of whom attend public, Indian Bureau, and parochial schools. For the most part these children speak the Indian language at home and English at school. This alone creates a great need in adult education for parents and others in the community. Isolation of these communities from the mainstream of American life becomes an important factor in their education. The following localities have special programs in English as a second language for Indian pupils: Casa Grande, Chinle, Flagstaff, Ganado, Globe, Holbrook, Kayenta, Peach Springs, Sells, Snowflake, Tuba City, Whiteriver, and Window Rock.

Bilingual educational programs include those designed for adults. In Arizona, there are 342,000 adults with less than a high school education, 194,000 with less than an eighth grade education, and 155,000 with less than a fifth grade education. The last group is classified as functionally illiterate and is the group which we hope to serve first. Of this group, some have never been to school in any country and speak no English.

This latter group includes American citizens. Many in this group are Spanish-Americans — Arizona has approximately 400,000. Many are Indians — Arizona has the largest number of Indians of any State in the Union. Many are aliens — there are some 46,000 within the borders of Arizona. Many are migrants.

More often than not, these are the people living on welfare, in poverty-stricken areas, unable to rise above their surroundings because they lack fundamental education.

Our aim is to go into the areas where education is most needed and set up classes which are most likely to fulfill the need.

During the first year and a half in which the Adult Education Division has been in existence, there have been 31 projects in 24 school districts, which reached 5,714 students and involved over 200 teachers. We have also had contracts for teacher-training, development of materials and English instruction by radio and T.V. at the University of Arizona, Arizona State University and Northern Arizona University.

This is an ambitious beginning, but it is only a beginning when you consider that there are 292 school districts and 155,000 adults with less than a fifth grade education.

Projects or local programs in progress:

COCHISE: County School Supt., Tombstone No. 1, Bisbee No. 2, Douglas No. 26, Benson No. 9, Willcox No. 13. Classes in basic math, English, and Social Sciences. Ft. Huachuca — non-English speaking G. I. wives (French, German, Vietnamese, and Korean)

COCONINO: Fredonia No. 6. Small isolated. Basic Industry — saw mill. Navajo class using our Navajo Tchng. tapes as base.

GILA: Hayden H. S. Dist. No. 80 and Copper Belt Dist. No. 41 (Hayden-Winkleman area) class teaches English as a Second Lang. to Mexican-Americans.

GRAHAM: Safford No. 1. Basic and advanced, English 900 Series, math, science, consumer material, citizenship, history & geography. Classes in Safford, Solomon, Little Hollywood. Ft. Thomas No. 10. The program consisted of English, math, first aid, and tribal constitution. Pima No. 20, Mexican-American and Indian. Farming area.

GREENLEE: Clifton No. 3. Program designed to raise levels of skills in reading, writing & general communication to the 8th grade level. Morenci No. 18, Large open pit copper mine area. Mexican-American. English as 2nd Language class. Duncan No. 20. Mining town completely Mexican-American. English as 2nd Language class.

MARICOPA: Phoenix Union No. 23. Exploratory in each new area and among different ethnic groups. Adjustments to individual needs, English. Glendale No. 40. Basically wealthy area near rural poverty pocket of Spanish speaking people who move out of neighborhood as they progress economically; they are replaced by poorer group. Wilson No. 7. Basic reading, writing and computational skills in variable group sizes with team teaching. Tempe No. 27. Underprivileged with Negro, Mexican-American. Basic communication skills. Arlington No. 47. Education Program to improve basic skills in citizenship and occupations. Dysart No. 30. Classes consist of functionally illiterate Spanish-American adults. English, math, social studies. Gila Bend No. 15. Mexican-American farming. English as 2nd Language. Chandler No. 80. Farming area. English as 2nd Language.

NAVAJO: Holbrook No. 3. Teaching basic communication skills in speaking, writing & reading. Snowflake No. 5. Came as result of community & teacher interest. Mormon community. Fringe of Indians & Mexican-Americans & ranch & saw-mill workers. Winslow No. 1. New. Tourist business. 60% Mexican-American 20% Negro.

Bilingual Education in California

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It is extremely difficult to give comprehensive answers to questions which begin in this way: "What is California doing in the field of . . . ." This difficulty stems from the fact that California's approximately 1,100 school districts are essentially self-directing, and they often set up programs that are unique to their areas; in addition, the geography of the state often makes the exchange of data regarding new programs a slow process — even in this age of computers and telecommunications. Therefore, this report on bilingual education, which is in an embryonic stage in many school districts of the state, will of necessity be an overview.

Educators at all levels in California's school system have a deep concern for the education of children who speak a language other than English, and these educators have been developing programs for these children for some time. However, one of the most far-reaching developments in bilingual education in the state occurred in the California Legislature during its recent session. This lawmaking body passed a bill that authorizes the governing board of any school to determine "when and under what circumstances instruction may be given bilingually." Prior to the passage of the "Bilingual Bill," as it came to be known, the law stipulated that "all schools" had to be taught in the English language.

Another development of statewide significance was a recent action by the State Board of Education; this ten-member group has asked the State Curriculum Commission to recommend textbooks in English as a second language for possible state adoption.

However, in spite of these major breakthroughs at the state level, much remains to be done in bilingual education in California.

We find in California, as we find elsewhere in the nation, programs which are erroneously labeled "bilingual." If we accept the dictionary definition of "bilingual" as "containing, expressed in, or using, two languages," we find a relatively few number of districts offering complete bilingual programs.

Although little has been done in providing bilingual education for children whose first language is a foreign language other than Spanish, much has been done for the Spanish-speaking child in California's public school system. However, when one realizes that approximately 11 percent of the public school population, kindergarten through grade twelve, is made up of children who come from homes in which Spanish is the predominant language, it is understandable that California has felt a greater need to provide bilingual programs for these pupils than for those whose native language is other than English or Spanish. The examples that follow have been selected to give the reader an idea of the types of bilingual programs now operating in California.

SPECIFIC BILINGUAL PROGRAMS

CALEXICO

The State Department of Education, the office of the Imperial County Superintendent of Schools, and the Calexico Unified School District have cooperated in the development of a project entitled "Bilingual Education in English and Spanish, Grades 7, 8, and 9 of the Calexico Unified School District." This program is now in its second year under Title III of ESEA.

The population of Calexico Unified School District, adjoining Mexicali, Mexico, is 84 percent Mexican-American and 13 percent Anglo. The administration felt it imperative to capitalize on the inherent "bilingualism" within the school community to develop an instructional program of bilingual education. Carl Varner, Superintendent of Calexico Unified School District, directs the program and Mrs. Edith Donlevy serves as the District's Project Coordinator. The author is coordinator for the program at the state level.

MARYSVILLE

During the 1966-67 school year 26 Spanish-speaking pupils from low income homes in the Marysville Joint Unified School District were provided with a special program in bilingual instruction. This program was under the direction of the Mexican-American Education Research Project; John Plakos of the State Department is the project coordinator.

SAN JOSE

One of the innovative bilingual education programs in California that has been designed to meet the needs of the community is at Overfelt High School, San Jose. Spanish-speaking students, newly arrived from Mexico, are placed in the bilingual program where, in addition to instruction in English as a foreign language, they receive instruction in the Spanish language in mathematics, social sciences and Spanish. Salvatore Falcone, Spanish teacher at Overfelt High School, has been instrumental in developing the program.

OAKLAND

A special project funded under California Senate Bill No. 28 has made it possible for the Oakland Unified School District to provide a reading and mathematics demonstration program in the Roosevelt Junior High School. Over 100 Mexican-American children are being served in this program; these are pupils who have been identified as unable to grasp English enough to benefit in a typical classroom setting. Thomas A. MacCalla, Assistant Superintendent, Urban Educational Services, Oakland Unified School District, directs the program.

RELATED PROGRAMS

In addition to the bilingual prorgams that have been identified, many other related programs have been initiated in California on behalf of the state's bilingual population. Some of these programs are identified here.

SPECIAL PROGRAMS

The Legislature passed a law in 1963 that provided $50,000 for a two-year pilot project to establish special programs of classes in English for 500 foreign-born minors in Imperial and San Diego counties. Funds were allocated on the basis of $50 per pupil annually. The State Department of Education was given responsibility for the administration of the program, and the State Board of Education set up the appropriate regulations. Mrs. Afton Dill Nance, Consultant in Elementary Education, was designated to coordinate the program from the state level.

The Legislature extended the program in 1965 for the whole state, and it made native as well as foreign-born minors eligible for the special instruction. Funds were increased to $50,000 annually, and the program was extended for a five-year period (1965-1970). The allocation of $50 per pupil remained the same. Eight districts were included in the original project and, currently, 16 districts are participating.

Inservice education of teachers and others interested in the education of Spanish-speaking children has been a major effort. In the summer of 1963, a three-week conference on Teaching English as a Second Language was held in the Alum Rock School District. The conference was initiated by Miss Helen Heffernan, then Chief of the Bureau of Elementary Education, and was cosponsored by the Department of Education. San Jose State College, and the Alum Rock School District. The Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington D.C. provided the services of a linguist, and the Rosenberg Foundation gave funds to pay part of the tuition and expenses of the 60 educators selected to attend.

Since the Alum Rock conference, weekend conferences of a similar nature have been cosponsored by the State Department of Education and interested school districts, counties, and institutions of higher education. Reports of these conferences have been published.

OTHER PROGRAMS IN ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

Scores of school districts in California are offering classes in English as a second language. As one example, four demonstration centers of exemplary programs in teaching English as a second language have been estabished in San Diego County. Herbert Ibarra is the Project Director.

The following persons can also provide information regarding programs in English as a second language: Mrs .Ruth Fifield, Office of Imperial County Superintendent of Schools; Robert Landen, Office of San Diego Superintendent of Schools; Mrs. Virginia Dominguez, Los Angeles Unified School District; Mrs. Edith Donlevy, Calexico Unified School District; Juan Solis, Carlsbad School District; and Miss Betty Fowler, Stanislaus County Superintendent of Schools.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION ACTIVITIES

The State Department of Education is deeply involved in programs designed to improve the educational opportunities of Mexican-American pupils and to strengthen the lines of communication with Spanish-

speaking parents to the end that they will better understand the schools' educational goals for their children. For a number of years, the State Department of Education, with funds from the National Defense Education Act Administration, has sponsored a monthly Spanish program on television station KMEX in Los Angeles. Tapes of these programs are available.

In addition to programs funded by NDEA, the State Department of Education has initiated a number of programs funded under the Elementary Secondary Education Act. Additional information about these and other programs for the Mexican-American population of California may be obtained from Eugene Gonzales, Assistant Superintendent of Public Instruction State Department of Education, Los Angeles.

It has been possible in this report to touch upon only a few programs in California schools directed to the state's bilingual population. These, however, give evidence of the fact that innovative ideas are being implemented and that a new curriculum is being formulated.

Colorado Report on Education for Bilingual Children

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Strong forces now at work in our country are bringing about a change from a state of unawareness to a realization of what is at stake in the education of the potentially bilingual child, whatever his native language may be. We can no longer afford to ignore the resources latent in this important individual and his counterparts, nor refuse to acknowledge that among the consequences of continuing oversight are social and economic problems that stem from dropouts or inadequate education. On the other hand, the potential gains of our entire country from a well-educated, well-adjusted group of people, able to function effectively in two languages and cultures, are immeasurable.

Among the forces effecting change is a growing understanding of the principles of second language learning — a recognition that, for the pupil who does not speak English, or who speaks it poorly, we must teach it to him using modern methods developed for foreign language instruction, and taught by teachers trained as second language teachers.

Another factor of change is the recognition based on much research, that bilingualism can be an asset or a handicap depending on the education the child receives in both languages. Maintaining and strengthening his mother tongue not only improves his self-concept and general learning abilities but increases his ability to learn English.

The new emphasis on solving problems of the disadvantaged child — whether the problems are educational, environmental, or physical — as seen in federal legislation such as the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, is having an impact on curriculum planning. This emphasis should grow stronger as the local schools accept their responsibility for adopting new programs instead of just enlarging their "remedial" ones. More pertinent still is the proposed Senate Bill Number S. 428, called the Bilingual Education Act, which is designed "to provide better educational opportunities for Spanish-speaking children through improving instructional programs."

Colorado, too, shows signs of its concern for meeting the problems of those children whose first language is not English. Like the proposed Senate bill mentioned previously, the Colorado Senate Joint Resolution No. 41, passed in the 46th General Assembly, calls upon school authorities "to expand and improve the existing academic programs of our schools as they relate to knowledge and understanding of Spanish-surnamed people, people of Indian descent, American Negroes, and other ethnic and nationality groups and their contributions . . . " Basic to an understanding of many of these people is recognition that their language difficulties are due in large part to the fact that, although English is a second language for them, it has seldom been taught as such.

Two major research projects in Colorado, both involving non-English-speaking children, have strong implications for bilingual educa-

tion per se. One entitled, "The Acculturation and Education of Rural Quad-Ethnic Groups for Maximum Choices in the Larger Society" has as its ultimate objective the construction of a "curricular framework within which teacher and student together may research and resolve problems of cross-cultural, *-linguistic,** and -conceptual interferences." Funded under USOE planning and operational grants of Title III of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, this project involves the Ute and Navajo Indian, the Spanish-speaking and English-speaking children of four school districts in southwestern Colorado. *(Italics mine)

"A project in an Autotelic Responsive Environment Nursery School for Environmentally Deprived Spanish-American Children" began in October, 1964 under the auspices of Colorado State College, Greeley. Its major thesis is that the common cycle of children from disadvantaged families (who enter school without the experiences prerequisite for school success, fall progressively behind other children, usually drop out before achieving functional literacy, and return to slum homes to rear the next disadvantaged generation) can and must be broken before the child enters the first grade. Combining aspects of similar approaches which emphasize that symbolic and linguistic skills are the foundations for later academic performance, the experiments are engaged in what Piaget would call the necessary research to find ways of raising the level of intellectual capacity in a majority of the population.

Funded under the Higher Education Act of 1965, Title III, one of our newer schools, Fort Lewis College, is offering an intensive six-weeks summer course in English for fifty American Indians, and plans to offer similar training in the fall term, and to include any foreign students and Spanish-speaking students who need the intensive English program.

Some informal, small-scale action research is taking place, but since it is seldom advertised, or repeated after one trial, it makes small impact on the language program as a whole, regardless of its merit. An example is a sixth grade Latin-American social studies unit, taught in Spanish, reinforced by the district's educational television Spanish unit, in one Denver elementary school. A first grade teacher in the same school prepared a health unit in Spanish, relating it to the breakfast and lunch programs. A few teachers in scattered schools in the state are experimenting with the Miami Linguistic Readers as a vehicle for teaching oral English and developing reading readiness.

Further action research is proposed, depending on the availability of funds, materials, or personnel. One high school plans to introduce a course taught in Spanish on Latin American history for native speakers or Level Four Spanish students. The prospective teacher is especially well qualified to teach this subject, which was her major field of college study in her native country of Uruguay.

In a concerted effort to publicize his problems, a statewide invitational conference on "The Spanish-named Child in Colorado Schools," a follow-up to the NEA-sponsored symposium of October 1965, is set for September 28-29, 1967, on the Boulder campus of the University of Colorado.

The signs are increasing that, in spite of deeply-embedded habits, we are beginning to recognize the problems of ill-developed bilingualism, and to seek solutions for them.

Bilingual Education in Nevada

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There are two areas of concern for the education of the bilingual in Nevada.

The first is for the student who is deprived of language and cultural experience. Included in this area are the agricultural migrant and many of the Indian students living on reservations. The second area of concern is for the non-speaker of English, who has immigrated to the United States, perhaps as a refugee, agricultural worker, student, etc.

LANGUAGE AND CULTURAL EXPERIENCE DEPRIVATION

Language deprivation is defined here as a small active vocabulary and an almost non-existing passive vocabulary in both languages. This vocabulary deficiency is directly related to the cultural experiences both abstract and real that the student has had. A number of illustrations are here given as casual effects.

Many families, both migrant and Indian, are under an economic burden to provide for their families as a result of receiving less than an adequate wage. Consequently, enrichment opportunities, such as vacations, visits to museums, parks, theaters, concerts, hunting and fishing trips, excursions to factories, etc. are financially improbable. Other experiences such as swimming, skiing, golfing, archery, bowling, etc. are rarely part of the student's background. As a result, expressions concerning these activities are seldom found in the vocabulary of the student.

Another casual effect is the lack of experience on the part of the parents in many of the aforementioned activities. They obviously then cannot interact with their children concerning those things of which they are unacquainted.

Housing and studying facilities are often inadequate. There exists a lack of space, a family of four or more cramped into one or two rooms. Lighting is often a kerosene lantern; no tables, pencils, or books, are to be found. This reduces the changes for language experience, both real and abstract, in the home environment.

One more determining factor is that often when the student reaches the age of fourteen or fifteen he is considered by the parents to be an economic liability when in school, and an economic asset when employed. Additional schooling, thus, is denied.

In order to provide opportunities for these students, a number of projects have been initiated in Nevada under grants for the educationally deprived, TITLE I ESEA, and under provisions of the Johnson-O'Malley Act.

Moapa Valley Migrant Student Project is an effort to coordinate all agencies, federal, state, and local, and other interests concerned with

the agricultural migrants who harvest the winter crops in Moapa Valley, east of Las Vegas. Plans have been made to attack the problems referred to in the previous paragraphs through education of the whole family, and by providing more real and personal service in the areas of employment, welfare, housing, etc. This project has just been initiated, so no data is available. Approximate number of people involved, 400.

Evening Educational Multipurpose Center for Students is an example of several TITLE I ESEA projects for the purpose of providing facilities and materials upon which to expand and develop language experiences. Activities which are provided in the Center include: Individual and small group instruction for youngsters experiencing difficulty in subject matter areas; a study center for students, with access to the materials center; individual and group counseling for students and parents; special programs in music and art; organized recreational activities; and, every other week, motion pictures (documentaries, travelogues, drama, etc.) are shown to parents and students.

The basic assumption is that experience deprivation is the greatest contribution to poor achievement, rather than an inability to communicate in English per se.

NON-SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH

The majority of these families are immigrants or refugees from Mexico, Cuba, or Puerto Rico. They are employed, principally, in tourist oriented industries, such as: hotels, restaurants, casinos, motels, etc., located in the major cities of Nevada. Their language facility in Spanish is usually quite good and most have had adequate cultural experience on which to base an expanded vocabulary in their native language. The primary concern, then, is to teach English as a second language.

Several projects are contemplated in the Las Vegas area for fiscal year 1967-68 to develop the English skills of students having this handicap.

Some 200 students have been identified as non-speakers of English in about five elementary schools and the number appears to be increasing. The students will be assisted within the regular classroom, as a result of in-service training with the regular classroom teacher. Language specialists will provide services for diagnostic purposes and to assist teachers. Audio-visual aids will be purchased under TITLE II ESEA.

Nevada is at its Genesis as concerns programs dealing with the education of the bilingual; however, many of its problems are unique to the state. The efforts of teachers, administrators, and others in these projects should produce educational worth to all educators.

Teaching Spanish to Native Speakers of Spanish in New Mexico

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NEED

Inasmuch as New Mexico has a large population of Spanish-speaking children, there is an outstanding need for the teaching of Spanish to these children. We have initiated a language-arts type instruction at the elementary level because we believe that Spanish-speaking children need to develop language skills in their mother tongue if they are to become truly bilingual. Spanish-speaking children comprise approximately 30 percent of the school population in New Mexico. Although this is the estimated percentage for the State, the Spanish-speaking student population is concentrated in the small rural schools of the State. In many instances the enrollment in these schools is as high as 95 percent Spanish-speaking.

Another factor to be considered is the fact that the Spanish-speaking population is concentrated in economically depressed as well as culturally deprived areas. There is an outstanding need for the teaching of the mother tongue in the schools in order to develop positive attitudes toward hispanic culture as well as to provide society with functional bilinguals. The lack of instruction in Spanish has handicapped the full development of these children in the past and has interfered with the development of acceptable skills in English.

Since there exists a national need for bilingual and multi-lingual citizens within the national economic framework, the teaching of Spanish to students whose mother tongue is Spanish should be considered as the development of a national resource.

ASSUMPTIONS

It is believed that by developing language skills in their native tongue, Spanish-speaking children will be better equipped to make adequate progress in their study of their second language, English.

It is also assumed that by developing literacy in Spanish the bilingual student will be better prepared to cope with the entire curriculum, since he will have at his disposition two fully-developed communication mediums.

OBJECTIVES

1. Develop all the language skills: understanding, speaking, reading and writing
2. Develop appreciation and awareness of hispanic culture
3. Broaden economic opportunities of individuals
4. Use pilot classroom as a demonstration center for methods and techniques of teaching Spanish to Spanish-speakers
5. Use results obtained to initiate curriculum changes in the State

OUTCOMES

It is believed that by providing effective language instruction in the mother tongue children will be better prepared to:

1. Overcome problems created by limited experience with, and awareness of, their own language
2. Develop self-confidence and pride in their native culture and better adjustment to the bi-cultural environment prevalent in New Mexico
3. Develop literacy in the mother tongue
4. Develop acceptance of Spanish as a communication medium for Spanish-speakers
5. Effectuate changes in the curriculum that will permit the teaching of Spanish and possibly the teaching of selected subject matter in Spanish

THE PLAN

We have developed a language arts type program beginning in grade 1 and carried through grade 6. All language skil's are being developed. This is done by using textbooks, materials, and procedures developed for native speakers of Spanish.

In order to assure effective teaching and a well-organized program, a full time teacher is employed and assigned to the pilot school.

Teacher Qualifications

The teacher is a person who has been educated in the native language, Spanish.

Materials

In order to offer materials suitable for native speakers of the language, the Laidlaw Brothers series developed and used in Puerto Rico as basic texts, are being used. This is a basic series (grades 1-6) developed by Gomez Tejera, Pastor, and Guzman.
Also, teacher-prepared materials are being used. These include charts, seatwork, art work, bulletin board materials, and other teaching aids.

Methods

Standard language arts methods are being used.

PROCEDURES

First grade: expand oral fluency by using specific language activities that lead into the reading of pre-primer and primer type readers. Begin the study of Spanish letters and words.

Second grade: continue development of oral language, reading and elementary writing of letters, words, and simple sentences.

Third grade: continue development of oral language skill, reading, and continue the writing of simple sentences. Emphasize cultural awareness through children's literature.

Fourth grade: continue the development of oral skills, reading, and writing. Introduce hispanic children's literature as reading material.

Fifth grade: continue development of skills outlined. Begin comparison of cultures.

Sixth grade: continue the development of skills outlined in 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5.

EVALUATION

Standard methods of evaluating and reporting are being used. These are in accordance with local school policies and include the maintenance of records and reports to parents.

STATE DEPARTMENT SERVICES

The foreign languages consultant of the State Department of Education co-ordinates the program and provides supervisory and co-ordinating services to assure the effectiveness of the program.

Pecos, New Mexico

Pecos, a small community 80 miles northeast of Albuquerque on the Pecos River, is supported mainly by lumbering and farming. Its population of just over 1000 people is almost entirely "Hispano" and few of its citizens are very high on the economic ladder.

Recognizing the need for a radical departure from the standard curriculum for educating the bilingual child, the New Mexico Department of Education presented a proposal to the Ford Foundation for pilot projects for the teaching of English as a second language and the teaching of Spanish as a mother tongue. The proposal was accepted and under the Western States Small Schools Project, Pecos was selected for the pilot project on the teaching of Spanish. Mrs. Olivia Pincheira, a native of Chile, was selected to teach language arts in Spanish to all chidren in grades 1-6 at Pecos Elementary. Materials designed for the teaching of the basic skills of understanding, speaking, reading, and writing and specifically prepared for native speakers of Spanish had been selected. These, completed by teacher-prepared materials, offered the basis for an effective program.

The children at Pecos have been started on a program of literacy in Spanish. The classroom where they are taught the basic skills of literacy speaks clearly of their cultural heritage and of their mother tongue. It is a classroom like any found in Spanish-America. The teaching materials, decorations, activities, and the language is Spanish.

Athough the Spanish language arts class was limited to thirty minutes daily for each class, it was evident to the observers that something exciting and tremendously significant had been added to the curriculum at Pecos. This was instruction in the mother tongue — instruction that points to a future of functional bilingualism.

Texas Report on Education for Bilingual Students

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During the past year, Texas has made much progress in the field of bilingual education. Several schools have initiated programs designed to meet the educational needs of Spanish-speaking students while others are continuing programs begun several years ago. The Texas Education Agency has also taken definite steps to promote the necessary curriculum changes for children whose mother tongue is other than English. State and federal financial assistance has been instrumental in encouraging many of the innovations. The following special programs, both local and state, for non-English Speaking students in Texas, are included to inform the Southwest Council of Foreign Language Teachers of recent developments.

Local Schools

DEL RIO INDEPENDENT SCHOOL DISTRICT

A bilingual teaching experiment was initiated in the first grade of the Garfield School in September, 1966. A portion of each day was devoted to the use of Spanish as the language of instruction. Children were divided into eight sections, four experimental and four control groups. One experimental and one control group were comprised of both English- and Spanish-speaking children. The other six groups were made up of Spanish-speaking children. The school reports conclusive favorable results and has extended classes to include grade two.

DEL VALLE INDEPENDENT SCHOOL DISTRICT

(Austin)

ESEA, Title III, funds were used to finance an instructional project in bilingual education at Creedmore School. Through an extension course of The University of Texas, teachers received instruction in teaching English as a second language and in audio-lingual methodology. The program includes all children, English- and Spanish-speaking, in grades one through five. Both English and Spanish are taught as specific subjects, and instruction in the social studies is presented through the media of both languages. Elsewhere, Spanish is used only when students fail to understand explanations given in English.

EDINBURG INDEPENDENT SCHOOL DISTRICT

Spanish-speaking children in the elementary grades receive daily instruction in their mother tongue. Classes are thirty minutes in duration and are designed to reinforce listening and speaking and later develop the reading and writing skills. During the 1966-67 school year, the school had the services of an exchange teacher from Guatemala.

EL PASO INDEPENDENT SCHOOL DISTRICT

The El Paso Independent School District, with the financial assistance of an ESEA, Title III, grant, is conducting an experimental program in bilingual instruction for Spanish-speaking students. Teachers who do not have a command of Spanish are given instruction in this

language with particular emphasis on listening and speaking, along with instruction in audio-lingual methodology. Usually, the morning instruction is given in English and instruction in the afternoon is presented in Spanish. In addition, students are bussed daily to a central electronic laboratory for language practice.

HARLANDALE INDEPENDENT SCHOOL DISTRICT

(San Antonio)

This school district began its program two years ago with one experimental and two control groups. The project has been extended to include grade two this year. In addition, the program now includes fourteen sections of grade one. Children receive oral Spanish instruction during the first six weeks. Instruction in other subject areas is in English, but teachers are free to revert to Spanish to facilitate student comprehension. The school system recently constructed a hexagonal Bilingual Center, which consists of classrooms built around a central multi-purpose room. Pilot projects in bilingual team teaching will be conducted in the Center.

HARLINGEN INDEPENDENT SCHOOL DISTRICT

Harlingen Independent School District has inaugurated a class in intensive English as a foreign language for students from Mexico. Students spend the greater part of each day in this class. Once the teacher feels that a particular student has an adequate command of English, he is placed in regular curriculum classes. Last year students ranged in age from eleven to seventeen and were drawn from various campuses of the school system.

SAN ANTONIO INDEPENDENT SCHOOL DISTRICT

(Language Research Project of the Department of Curriculum and Instruction, University of Texas)

Begun in 1964, this project has developed materials in Spanish and English for use in selected classes of the San Antonio Independent School District. The main objective of the experiment was to compare three methods of developing reading readiness in Spanish-speaking students in grade one: oral-aural English, oral-aural Spanish, no oral-aural. Science was selected to be the basic subject content to be presented in the bilingual project.

UNITED CONSOLIDATED INDEPENDENT SCHOOL DISTRICT

(Laredo)

United Consolidated's bilingual program entered its fourth year in September, 1967, and school officials plan to extend the program to include at least grade 6. Classes are comprised of both Spanish- and English-speaking students. Teachers report favorable results in all areas of the curriculum for both linguistic groups.

ZAPATA INDEPENDENT SCHOOL DISTRICT

During the 1966-67 school year, preschool children were given instruction in Spanish and English. Last summer all teachers attended

institutes in the teaching of English as a second language and for the teaching of migrant children. Bilingual instruction has been extended to include three sections of preschool and four of grade one. Both administrators and teachers have been pleased with the results.

Southwest Educational Development Laboratory

Based on the findings of The University of Texas Language Research Project, the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory is in the process of developing what will eventually be bilingual materials available in English and Spanish and English and French. The lab now has available, in Spanish and English, the oral component in: science, grades 1-4 social studies, grades 1-2; and beginning math. Completion of the entire set of materials is planned for 1971.

Headstart

This program, operated mostly with federal funds, (OEO) draws heavily on all the resources which contribute to the child's total development — family, community, and professional personnel. Its chief purpose is to provide the culturally deprived child with self-realization so that he may find his place in society. Some summer Headstart programs are coupled with programs for the non-English speaking child to provide experience in cultural enrichment and language development. Forty-seven full-year Headstart Programs and seventy-seven summer Programs were sponsored in 1966-67.

Texas Education Agency

ACCREDITATION STANDARDS

The Texas Education Agency, in Bulletin 560, *Principles and Standards for Accrediting Elementary and Secondary Schools (tentative)*, has incorporated a standard that permits schools to establish bilingual instruction. Although this is a permissive standard and schools may comply on a voluntary basis, it constitutes a major step in bilingual schooling in Texas. Furthermore, local schools may modify the standard according to their needs. The standard reads as follows:

Non-English speaking children needing special instruction to adjust successfully in school and to use the English language may be placed in a modified program that makes full use of the pupils' ability in the language they understand and speak when enrolled in public school. *

The modified program should have the following characteristics:

The first language of the child is used as a means of instruction in developing the basic skills of reading, spelling, writing, and arithmetic.

English is introduced as a second language; as the child becomes more proficient in understanding and speaking the second language, the use of the first language as a means of instruction should be decreased, while the use of English for this purpose is increased.

The use of both languages as a medium of instruction is continued for a minimum of three years and thereafter

until such time as the child is able to comprehend and communicate effectively in English.

To assure the development of a literate bilingual, the child is given the opportunity for continued study of the four basic skills of his first language (understanding, speaking, reading, and writing).

CONFERENCE ON BILINGUALISM

The Conference on Development of Bilingualism in Children of Varying Linguistic and Cultural Heritage, sponsored by the Texas Education Agency on January 31-February 3, 1967, brought together representatives from the U. S. Office of Education, Texas, New Mexico, Puerto Rico, and Guatemala. The main purpose of this conference was to assist the Texas Education Agency in developing an outline for a publication designed to give administrators and teachers guidelines in establishing and maintaining bilingual programs. This bulletin will serve as a guide to schools in implementing a bilingual program set forth in the *Standards for Accreditation*. The publication will include an overview of the educational and economic deficiencies faced by Mexican-Americans and will survey current programs for this group. The objectives of bilingual schooling, suggested patterns of bilingual programs, and personnel development will be described fully. The section on the implementation of a bilingual program will incorporate, among other points, roles of persons involved, description of the modified curriculum, materials and equipment, methods, and sample teaching units.

After the bulletin has been pilot-tested in local schools, it will be revised before actual publication.

BULLETIN FOR THE TEACHING OF SPANISH TO SPANISH-SPEAKING STUDENTS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

During the 1966-67 school year 360 school districts reported having 34,548 Spanish speakers enrolled in secondary Spanish classes.

Out of the 360 districts, 94 reported special classes for native speakers of Spanish. Since all of the State-adopted Spanish textbooks for use in grades 7-12 are designed for English speakers, schools use a variety of materials, both from the U. S. and Spanish-speaking countries. There is, however, no uniform program for such classes.

In an effort to coordinate exsiting programs and encourage addtional ones, the Texas Education Agency is in the process of developing a bulletin which will set forth guidelines to establish and maintain Spanish classes for native speakers. The outcomes of accelerated classes for Spanish speakers should enable the student to:

- understand a standard Spanish dialect dealing with topics within his experience
- express himself in a standard Spanish dialect without recourse to English or substandard forms
- read Spanish with direct comprehension
- write Spanish based on material practiced orally and/or read, proceeding from controlled composition to free expression on topics within his experience
- interpret the Hispanic culture and thus acquire a sense of pride in his own heritage

- become familiar with opportunities for using Spanish in the businesss and vocational worlds

PRESCHOOL INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM

The 56th Legislature authorized a preschool instructional program for non-English speaking children. The Act provides for the financing of instructional units in public school districts or a combination of school districts whose officials have submitted applications, subsequently approved by the Texas Education Agency. The purpose of the special program is to prepare non-English speaking children for entry into the first grade with a command of essential English words which will afford them a better opportunity to complete the work assigned to them.

THE TEXAS PROJECT FOR THE EDUCATION OF MIGRANT CHILDREN

The forty schools that participate in this program condense the traditional nine-month school program into a six-month period for migrant children. In 1965, the Texas Education Agency, through the Governor's Office, was granted $3,225,000 to expand the program. During the summer, 1967, the TPEMC sponsored two special programs:

- Pan American College and Texas College of Arts and Industries held institutes to train teachers, supervisors, administrators, and teacher aides to meet the emotional and intellectual needs of children enrolled in the Texas Project for the Education of Migrant Children. Special attention was given to reinforcing teachers' and administrators' awareness of psychological needs of migrant children, instruction in teaching Engiish as a second language, relating the teaching of English as a second language to all academic areas, and training selected institute participants to function as instructional supervisors in the project schools.
- Texas Migrant Interestate Cooperation Project provided the services of twenty-two TPEMC teachers to other states receiving migrant children. The objectives of the Project are:
  1. To have available in the participating states teachers with experience in the teaching of Texas migrant children
  2. To share information necessary to the understanding of the problems of teaching Texas migrant children
  3. To develop a better system of record transfer among migrant schools
  4. To improve teaching techniques used in the instruction of migrant children
  5. To encourage school participation of Texas migrants when they are in other states
  6. To promote, especially among participating Texas teachers, a realization of the problems faced by school-age migrant children during the migrant cylcle

* A plan shall be placed on file with the Division of School Accreditation, Texas Education Agency, for such program prior to its initiation.

Programs for Bilingual Students of Utah

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Utah State Board of Education

Compared to other states, Utah does not have a large number of bilingual students enrolled in the public schools. The 1966[1] report indicates a total of 13,193 bilingual children; divided into subtotals there were 8,849 Spanish students, 2,798 Indian students, and 1,546 Asiatics. Utah could not be pointed out as a shining example of what should be done for bilingual students, but there has been substantial effort extended in behalf of these children through public and private organizations. Funds from Title I of ESEA are helping to improve the picture in recent months.

Several schools in Utah have made preparations to teach Spanish to native speakers of this language. Mrs. Rosa Mae Evans of West High School, Salt Lake City, reports that one of her classes will consist of Spanish speaking students that have demonstrated a basic desire to learn as reflected in their attitudes and study habits in school. She has contacted the El Paso Schools and has received some materials to assist her with this class. She plans to use the ALM Spanish, Level One and Level Two books for the basic text and to emphasize the speaking phase of the program and not require as much memorization as she does for her regular beginning Spanish classes. She states that the new ALM workbook will be of assistance as well. She will conduct a unit beginning with English dialects and then proceed to dialects in the Spanish language. This approach will be used to enable the student to become aware of different dialects of Spanish and to encourage them to improve their use of the language. Supplementary readers have been chosen to help the students improve their reading skills and enjoy and appreciate the culture which in part they represent. Mrs. Evans hopes to accomplish two years work in one with these students; it is anticipated that they will then be able to study with the third or fourth year students who are learning Spanish as a second language.

Mr. Lloyd McDaniels of Kearns Junior High School will teach Spanish to a group of 9th grade native speakers of this language. His procedure will be similar to the techniques described by Mrs. Evans.

Innovative approaches to the teaching of Spanish to native speakers and non-native speakers have been planned by Mr. Harold Olmstead of Davis High School and Mrs. Beulah Heath of Price Junior High School. Mr. Olmstead is preparing a group to study World History in Spanish and Mrs. Heath wants to teach world geography in Spanish. Mr. Olmstead is taking two years to prepare this group for this class, while Mrs. Heath hopes to begin her project in the fall of 1967. A large school district in Utah has submitted a Title III project to teach English as a second language on television beginning October 1967.

Many of the projects and programs approved in Title I of ESEA have brought direct benefits to bilingual children in Utah, such as programs to improve reading or to improve language arts skills, but there has not been a program designed with a special emphasis to

teach English as a second languge. Without going to the heart of the problem — the acquisition of English as a second language — can these programs give the children that which they need most of all in order to function in the school and community?

San Juan County School District in the southeastern section of Utah has been operating an ESEA Title I project for the "Enrichment of Learning Opportunities for Educationally Deprived Children in Language Arts, Health, and Hygiene, Vocational Training and Fine Arts." This district should be commended for its accomplishments and for its efforts. The administration has employed twelve additional teachers—although not one is trained to teach English as a second language; they have engaged reading specialists to help the San Juan teachers become more skillful in teaching this subject; they have introduced homemaking classes for older Navajo girls in the elementary school; they have introduced arts and crafts classes so that Navajo children can exploit their native abilities; they have provided industrial arts classes for boys, they have provided special instructors for Navajo children taking band and music; and they have provided an activity bus so that Navajo children can participate in after school sports and student activities. The school administrators point with justifiable pride to the fact that more Navajo students are staying in school and more of them are taking part in school functions, but they also point out the fact that they need to do more to help these children meet their basic need — the acquisition of English. These children need to learn English so that they can more adequately function in the subject areas of the curriculum.

The San Juan School District officials have learned a great deal through their experiences and are on the verge of a breakthrough in the problems related to the education of Navajo children. There are approximately 1,500 Navajo children in this district, but only about 370 are enrolled in the San Juan schools. There are an additional sixty Ute Indians enrolled in the San Juan schools. There are private and government schools in the county which enroll Indian students as well.

During the summer of 1967, approximatey 300 Indian children in nineteen groups will be enrolled in classes in the San Juan School District Project Head Start. Not one of the teachers leading these groups has had professional training in teaching English as a second language, but some of the teaching aides can. The elementary Supervisor reports that the district has not been able to employ qualified teachers of English as a second language. She pointed out that it is very difficult for high school aged Navajo students to develop real facility in English and that the elementary school was by far the best place to begin this instruction. She states that a ratio of about five Indian students to fifteen Anglo students was optimal for helping the Indian students acquire the behavior patterns of the whites. When there are more Indian students than five to fifteen per class, the Indians mingle with one another and do not relate well to the other children.

Two districts, Uintah and Duchesne, have also initiated special programs for Indian students. Duchesne County School District helped organize a project headstart program which was held during the summer of 1966. The Ute Tribal Council is now the sponsoring agent for the

headstart programs which are functioning on a school-year basis in both Uintah and Duchesne Counties. The number of children participating in headstart will be increased for the school year of 1967-1968.

The Duchesne County School District and the Uintah County School District are presently operating Title I projects which are designed to improve classroom performance in reading and in other school areas and to improve the child's self-image. Instructional assistance has been provided in English language arts, reading and mathematics and cultural enrichment. In addition the class size has been reduced and teacher aides have been provided. The Duchesne School District has been able to take the children out of the regular class to give them special assistance, but the Uintah School District has not been able to do this because of the lack of space. In the Duchesne School District the Ute Indians are in a minority; there were 125 enrolled in 1965-66. These children, because they mingle with the white children, learn English because they use it. There were 470 Ute Indians enrolled in the Uintah School District in 1965-66.

At Union High School in Roosevelt, Utah, which is operated jointly by the Uintah and Duchesne School Districts, two significant things have been done recently to assist the Ute students with their schooling. A prominent member of the Ute tribe, Mrs. Juanita Grows, who is bilingual and very capable, has been employed as a teaching assistant. In addition an adaptive education class has been organized for the purpose of assisting the students with severe academic retardation. Several recommendations have been made by specialists of the State School Office for continued improvement of the program. Among these recommendations was the suggestion that English be taught as a second language.

At Union High School the Ute Indian students do not engage in many school activities with the exception of athletics; a few of the boys take part in football and basketball. District authorities did not have an explanation for the lack of participation of Indian students at this school.

In the three county school districts in Utah which enroll substantial numbers of Indian students, there are comparable circumstances involved in the educational programs being offered:

1. There are no bilingual teachers working with the Indian students. There are, however, bilingual teacher aides available in a few of the classrooms.
2. To date, these districts have been unable to find teachers who are qualified to teach English as a second language.
3. These school districts have not been able to engage the services of a qualified person to conduct in-service training in this subject. There are two and probably three large universities in Utah which have professors qualified to train teachers in English as a second language, but because of such factors as time and load, their services are not readily available.
4. There is evidence that administrators and teachers are working to improve the educational programs being offered Indian students and all other students of the districts.

A creative and wholesome program for the benefit of Indian students is being conducted by the Latter-Day Saints Church. Mormon families take an Indian child into their homes during the school year and these children attend the public schools with their foster brothers and sisters. The same Indian student often returns to the same foster parents up to ten years. They may enter the program at age eight and continue through high school. The program seems to be successful in helping these children acquire substantial skill in adjusting to a modern society. Last year there were 1,569 Indian children in foster homes in Utah, Arizona, Idaho and Canada. Some of the students who have had this opportunity have gone on for master's and doctor's degrees in universities all over the United States.

Programs designed to help bilingual children reach the level of their potential are worth the money and ingenuity being invested. One of the objectives of the Utah State Board of Education expresses the fact that public education shall be devoted to educating *all* of the children of *all* of the people.

Utah Annual Statistical Report, 1965-66, Utah State Board of Education Division of Finance and Publications — 1966, p. 25
Finanace and Publications — 1966. p. 25

APPENDIX I

"EMERGENT MODEL" OF A SOCIOCULTURAL SYSTEM

— with the corresponding categories of the *OCM* [1]

It is proposed that the following headings, particularly those under I. The Culture, and II, The Society, indicate the aspects of a people's way of life that should receive priority in our efforts to strengthen the contribution of foreign-language, social-studies, and language-arts curricular understanding and communication. These headings constitute only an inventory. It is claimed, however, that in the present state of studies in the social sciences and the humanities, the four sets of headings are emerging from an inventory to an eventual model that will show the structure and functioning of a socio-cultural system.

The "Emergent Model" is a part of the answer to two basic questions generated by the educational purposes of cross-cultural understanding and communication: where to look for the essentials of a people's "life style" and how to organize the essentials for the sake of comprehensibility. Two other basic questions are how to define the essentials responsibly and how to present them in curricular sequences. The series of basic questions is discussed by Howard L. Nostrand in Chapter I of Albert Valdman, editor, *Trends in Language Teaching*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1966.

I. THE CULTURE

A. MAIN THEMES: the culture's system of a dozen or so central values, treated as "themes": i. e., as concepts centering upon a directive (prescriptive) element, but as involving also some underlying assumptions about reality (IC) and some particularized, applied forms, chiefly social norms (II). — *OCM* 182 through 186 (Function, Norms, Cultural Participation, Cultural Goals, Ethoncentrism); 69 Justice, 577 Ethics (Ideals of Individual Virtue); 885 Adulthood (Cultural Definition of Adult Status, Concepts of the Ideal Man and the Ideal Woman); 771 General Character of Religion; 522 Humor (sense of), 572 (Leadership, Submissiveness, Cooperation, Competitiveness, Aggressiveness); 576 Etiquette (Deference to Status Superiors, Noblesse Oblige).

B. ETHOS or "national character": the major behavioral tendencies not markedly valued or disvalued (such as impetuosity, grumbling, defensiveness, feelings of superiority or inferiority) — *OCM* 181 Ethos, 152 Drives and Emotions (Anger, Hate, Jealousy, Ambivalence, Love, Fear, Sympathy, Greed, Ambition, Vanity); 736 Dependency (including Independent Spirit); 461 Labor and Leisure (Value and Dignity of Labor, Laziness, Pleasant and Unpleasant Tasks, Pride in Craftsmanship); 521 Conversation (Loquacity and Reserve); 831 Sexuality (Romantic Love); 178 Socio-cultural Trends (Fashions and Vogues, Cultural Lag); 515 Personal Hygiene, 863 Cleanliness Training.

C. ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT REALITY: the "ground of meaning" beliefs. — *OCM* 82 Ideas about Nature and Man, 821 through 829; 42 Property, 77 Religious Beliefs, 777 Luck and Chance.

D. VERIFIABLE KNOWLEDGE (insofar as the organization or substance of the academic fields is significant for understanding the culture). — *OCM* 81 Exact Knowledge.

E. ART FORMS (insofar as indicative of the culture; they include, as folk arts, conversation, cooking, dress, and humor): 1. LITERATURE broadly defined as composition in words). — *OCM* 538 Literature, 536 Drama, 537 Oratory, 21 Records, 521 Conversation, 2. MUSIC AND THE DANCE. — 533 Music, 535 Dancing. 3. PAINTING AND SCULPTURE. — 53 Fine Arts, 532 Representative Art, 531 Decorative Art. 4. ARCHITECTURE, URBAN PLANNING, INTERIOR DECORATION. — 341 Architecture, 351 Grounds, 352 Furniture, 353 Interior Decoration and Arrangement. 5. CLOTHING AND ADORNMENT. — 29 Clothing, 30 Adornment. 6. CUISINE. — 26 Food Consumption, 27 Drink, 252 Food Preparation. 7. HUMOR. — 522 Humor, its aesthetic forms as a folk art).

F. THE LANGUAGE. — *OCM* 19 Language, 538 Literature, 87 Education.

G. PARALANGUAGE AND KINESICS (i. e. tone of voice, intonation and other suprasegmentals, accentuation, breaks, etc.; facial expressions,

1. George P. Murdock and others, *Outline of Cultural Materials*. New Haven, Conn.: Human Relations Area Files, 4th Revised Edition, 961.

gestures, postures and body motions, proxemics). — *OCM* 201 Gestures and Signs, 19 Language.

II. THE SOCIETY, defined as interpersonal and intergroup relations; and its *Institutions*, defined by their component roles and the norms governing them.

A. FAMILIAL. — *OCM* 58 Marriage, 59 Family, 86 Socialization, 57 Interpersonal Relations, 571, 572, 60 Kinship, 61 Kin Groups, 592 Household.

B. RELIGIOUS. — *OCM* 77 Religious Beliefs, 78 Religious Practices, 79 Ecclesiastical Organization.

C. ECONOMIC-OCCUPATIONAL. — *OCM* 47 Business and Industrial Organization, 46 Labor, 433 Production and Supply, 45 Finance, 815 Pure Science (Theory).

D. POLITICAL AND JUDICIAL. — *OCM* 66 Political Behavior, 67 Law, 62 Community, 63 Territorial Organization, 64 State, 65 Government Activities, 68 Offenses and Sanctions. Subsumed under the political institution are the police and the military institution. — *OCM* 625 Police, 70 Armed Forces, 71 Military Technology, 72 War.

E. EDUCATIONAL, i. e. schooling — *OCM* 87 Education, 20 Communication, 658 Public Education. For 86 Socialization, see II K, Social Properties.)

F. INTELLECTUAL-ESTHETIC. — *OCM* 517 Leisure Time Activities, 217 Archives, 524 Games, 533 Music, 543 Exhibitions, 545 Musical and Theatrical Productions, 571 Social Relationships and Groups.

G. RECREATIONAL. — *OCM* 52 Recreation, 54 Entertainment, 517 Leisure Time Activities, 53 Fine Arts.

H. COMMUNICATIONS. — *OCM* 20 Communications, 21 Records.

J. STRATIFICATION AND MOBILITY, including geographical mobility. — *OCM* 56 Social Stratification, 55 Individuation and Mobility.

K. SOCIAL PROPERTIES not specific to the institutions.—*OCM* 57 Interpersonal Relations, 571 through 579, 86 Socialization, 192 Vocabulary, 195 Stylistics (e. g. letter writing), 183 Norms, 784 Avoidance and Taboo, 777 Luck and Chance (superstitions), 626 Social Control, 574 Visiting and Hospitality.

L. STATUS OF GROUPS BY AGE AND SEX. — *OCM* 554 Status, Role, and Prestige, 561 Age Stratification, 886-8, The Aged, 562 Sex Status. 1. MEN. — 885 Adulthood. 2. WOMEN. — 885 Adulthood, 562 Sex Status, 462 Division of Labor by Sex. 3. ADOLESCENTS. — 882 Status of Adolescents, 883 Adolescent Activities. 4. CHILDREN. — 858 Status of Children.

M. STATUS OF ETHNIC AND RELIGIOUS MINORITIES, including resident and visiting aliens. — 186 Ethnocentrism, 563 Ethnic Stratification, 609 Behavior toward Non-relatives, Strangers and Aliens, 641 Citizenship, 668 Nationalistic and Nativistic Movements, 798 Religious Persecution, 829 Ideas About Race.

N. INTERPERSONAL AND INTERGROUP CONFLICTS, and the approaches used in the culture toward conflict resolution. — *OCM* 578 Ingroup Antagonisms, 627 Informal Ingroup Justice, 789 Magic (Cursing), 183 Norms (Scapegoats), 522 Humor (Wit and Practical Jokes), 577 Ethics (Lying), 602 Kin Relationships (Avoidance Relationships), 626 Social Control (and Gossip), 691 Litigation, 857 Childhood Activities (Quarreling and Fighting in Children), 865 Agression Training (Control of Aggression in Children), 183 Norms (Social Norms), 208 Public Opinion, 554 Status, Role, and Prestige, 558 Downward Mobility (Loss of Face), 576 Etiquette (Reactions to Breaks of Etiquette).

III. THE INDIVIDUAL, as personality and as a socially conditioned organism: the variability between and within individuals.

A. INTEGRATION OF THE PERSONALITY for self-control and purposeful action; model or basic personality. Motivation and the balance between gratification and deprivation. — *OCM* 15 Behavior Processes and Personality; 153 Modification of Behavior, 154 Adjustment Processes, 155 Personality Development, 156 Social Personality. The "allocative process": the distribution of the person's striving. — *OCM* 51 Living Standards and Routines, 181 Attitudes.

B. AT THE ORGANISMIC LEVEL, any significantly conditioned drives or other biological determinants of behavior such as constitutional or genetic factors, nutrition and disease. — *OCM* 751 Preventive Medicine (Conception of Health); 158 Personality Disorders (Incidence and Distribution); 143 Genetics (Physical Abnormalities); 261 Gratification and Control of Hunger; 83 Sex.

C. INTRAPERSONAL AND INTERPERSONAL VARIATION. — *OCM* 153 Modification of Behavior (Habit Formation); 86 Socialization, 864 Sex Training, 865 Aggression Training, 866 Independence Training, 811 Logic (Non-Logic Methods including Rationalization); 158 Personality Disorders (Abnormal Behavior); 885 Adulthood; 15 Behavior Process and Personality.

D. INTRAPERSONAL CONFLICT and conflict resolution. Defense and adjustment mechanisms, involving the attitudes held by the person in public, among intimates, and those he expresses only to himself. — *OCM* 152 Drives and Emotions (Hunger, Love, Thirst, Anxiety, Anger, Hate); 783 Purification and Expiation (Practices Reflecting a Sense of Guilt); 158 Personality Disorders, 154 Adjustment Processes, Personal Conflict), 153 Modification of Behavior, 784 Avoidance and Taboo.

IV. THE ECOLOGY, or relationship of the population to its physical and subhuman environment.

A. ATTITUDES TOWARD NATURE (mineral, plant, and animal), e. g. domination or adaptation, detachment or self-identification: applied forms of the relevant Values and Ground-of-Meaning Assumptions. — *OCM* 155 Personality Development, 82 Ideas about Nature (and Man), 821 through 825 Cleanliness and Sanitation. — *OCM* 863 Cleanliness Training.

B. EXPLOTATION OF NATURE (including animals). — *OCM* 22 Food Quest, 23 Animal Husbandry, 24 Agriculture, 31 Exploitative Activities.

C. USE OF NATURAL PRODUCTS. — *OCM* 25 Food Processing, 26 Food Consumption, 27 Drink, Drugs and Indulgence, 29 Clothing, 32 Processing of Basic Materials, 38 Chemical Industries, 28 Leather, Textiles, and Fabrics.

D. TECHNOLOGY. — *OCM* 40 Machines, 41 Tools and Appliances, 37 Energy and Power.

E. SETTLEMENT AND TERRITORIAL ORGANIZATION. — *OCM* 36 Settlements, 63 Territorial Organization, 13 Geography, 33 Building and Construction, 34 Structures, 35 Equipment and Maintenance of Buildings. Urban-Rural Contrast. — *OCM* 369 Urban and Rural Life.

F. TRANSPORTATION AND TRAVEL. — *OCM* 48 Travel and Transportation, 49 Land Transport, 50 Water and Air Transport.

APPENDIX II

STUDY OF HOW AMERICANS SEE THE FRENCH

conducted by the University of Washington,* Seattle, Washington
under NDEA Title VI contract with the U. S. Office of Education

If you have been in France for two months or longer, we want to ask for your help in discovering aspects of French life which need to be explained to American students so that they may better understand French culture and society. This study is part of a larger project, supported by the National Defense Education Act. Your responses will be strictly confidential, of course, but the statistical results will eventually be published in professional journals. Thank you for your aid in this important study.

INSTRUCTIONS: The 7-point scale that appears frequently throughout this questionnaire allows you to distinguish gradations of choice between the extremes at each end of the scale. To answer these questions circle the number on the scale that best represents your opinion.

1. About how much time have you spent in France? (If less than one year, please enter number of months) . . . . . _____ years or _____ months
2. To what extent have your experiences in France changed your ideas about France and the French? (Circle one number)
   Ideas remained about the same 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Ideas changed almost completely

3. To what extent have you participated in French life?
   Only slightly 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very closely
4. In general, how well do you speak French?
   Few words or not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Fluently
5. In your opinion, how much difference is there between French and American life?
   Both much the same 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very different
6. In general, how much do you like the French people and French life?
   Like very little or not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Like very much
7. What do you *like most* about the French and French life?
8. Do you find any French attitudes or behavior hard to understand? What are they?
9. What incident stands out as one of your most crucial experiences in adjusting to French life? (Please relate the incident as if you were telling it to an American who was about to go to France for the first time.)

Some areas of French life are listed below and on the following pages. Circle the rating response which best expresses your general opinion about how much difference you feel there is between French and American life for each area. Feel free to write in differences you have noticed, and please mention "do's and don'ts" (taboos) that you think Americans should be warned about in any of these areas of French life.

10. *Family Life:* (Child care, life in the home, adolescent activities, hospitality, role of women, meals, etc.)
    About the same as American 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very different from American
11. *Religious and philosophical attitudes and/or ideas*
    About the same as American 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very different from American
12. *Education:* (The school system, the attitudes toward the intellectual, etc.)
    About the same as American 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very different from American
    Comments (if any) about differences noticed:
13. *Social classes and class consciousness:*
    About the same as American 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very different from American
    Comments (if any) about differences noticed:
14. *Politics and political attitudes*
    About the same as American 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very different from American
    Comments (if any) about differences noticed:
15. *Friendship:* (Readiness to make friends, loyalty, etc.)
    About the same as American 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very different from American
    Comments (if any) about differences noticed:
16. *Leisure Time Activities:* (Humor, sports, movies, reading, attending art galleries, etc.)
    About the same as American 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very different from American
    Comments (if any) about differences noticed:
17. *Attitudes toward Sex:*
    About the same as American 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very different from American
    Comments (if any) about differences noticed:
18. *Etiquette:* (Any rules that are different, or the spirit in which they are applied)
    About the same as American 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very different from American
    Comments (if any) about differences noticed:
19. *Pace of Life:*
    About the same as American 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very different from American
    Comments (if any) about differences noticed:
20. *Temperament:*
    About the same as American 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very different from American
    Comments (if any) about differences noticed:
21. *Material Conditions:*
    About the same as American 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very different from American
    Comments (if any) about differences noticed:
22. *Attitudes toward Material Conditions:*
    About the same as American 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very different from American
    Comments (if any) about differences noticed:
23. Other Areas (Write in: _____)

24. *In general, how would you describe the French people?*

(In each line, circle the number that best represents your opinion.)

1	Unselfish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Selfish
2	Cooperative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Uncooperative
3	Flexible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Rigid
4	Reserved	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Outgoing
5	Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting
6	Sociable to Americans	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unsociable to Americans
7	Sociable among themselves	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unsociable among themselves
8	Weak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strong
9	Excitable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Levelheaded
10	Fair	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unfair
11	Optimistic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pessimistic
12	Naive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Sophisticated
13	Theoretical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pragmatic
14	Suspicious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Trusting
15	Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Passive
16	Hardworking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Lazy
17	Disrespectful of authority	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Respectful of authority
18	Conformist	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Individualist
19	Honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dishonest
20	Clean	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dirty

Other adjectives describing the French people (write in):

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25. *In general, how would you describe the American people?*

(In each line, circle the number that best represents your opinion.)

1	Unselfish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Selfish
2	Cooperative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Uncooperative
3	Flexible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Rigid
4	Reserved	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Outgoing
5	Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting
6	Sociable to French	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unsociable to French
7	Sociable among themselves	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unsociable among themselves
8	Weak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Strong
9	Excitable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Levelheaded
10	Fair	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unfair
11	Optimistic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pessimistic
12	Naive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Sophisticated
13	Theoretical	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pragmatic
14	Suspicious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Trusting
15	Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Passive
16	Hardworking	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Lazy
17	Disrespectful of authority	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Respectful of authority
18	Conformist	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Individualist
19	Honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dishonest
20	Clean	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dirty

Other adjectives describing the French people (write in):

Here are a few factual questions about yourself for statistical purposes only.

26a. What kind of work do you do? _____
(Occupation such as repairs TV, 10th grade teacher, retired, housewife, unemployed, etc.)

b. What kind of business or industry do you work in? _____
(Radio and TV service, city high school, etc.)

c. Class of worker: (Circle code)
- For government 1
- For private employer 2
- In own business 3

d. If your occupation has a title, what is it? _____

IF MARRIED (Occupation of spouse)

27a. What kind of work does your spouse do? _____

b. What kind of business or industry does your spouse work in? _____

c. Class of worker: (Circle code)
- For government 1
- For private employer 2
- In own business 3

d. If your spouse's occupation has a title, what is it? _____

IF YOU ARE A STUDENT (Occupation of principal earner)

28a. What kind of work does the principal earner in your family do? _____
(Occupation such as repairs TV, 10th grade teacher, retired, housewife, unemployed, etc.)

b. What kind of business or industry does he (or she) work in? _____
(Radio and TV service, city high school, etc.)

c. Class of worker: (Circle code)
- For government 1
- For private employer 2
- In own business 3

d. If his (or her) occupation has a title, what is it? _____

29. How would you rate your "socio-economic" level?
(Circle one code)

Lower class 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Upper class

30. What is the *broad* income group in which your total family money income for 1963 fell?
(Circle code)
- Under $10,000 1
- $10,000 - 19,999 1
- $20,000 or over 3

31. Sex: (Circle one)
- Male 1
- Female 2

32. Education: (Circle code)
- Some grade school 1
- Completed grade school 2
- Some high school 3
- Completed high school 4
- Some college 6
- Some work in a graduate or professional school 7
- Completed higher degree or professional school 8

33. Marital status: (Circle code)
- Married 1
- Widowed 2
- Divorced 3
- Separated 4
- Never married 5

34. What was your age at your last birthday? . . . . . ---------- years

35. If you grew up in the United States, where did you spend most of your childhood? (Circle code)

In a city (pop. 50,000 or over)	1
In a city (pop. less than 50,000)	2
In a rural area	3

36. What were your main sources of knowledge about France before going there?

(Circle code)

Newspapers, magazines, radio, TV	1
Books	1
School courses	3
Reports of travelers	4
Educational films, etc. of the Armed Forces	5
Other (write in):	6

Thank you for your cooperation!

APPENDIX III
ACHIEVEMENT TO BE EXPECTED IN THE UNDERSTANDING OF THE FOREIGN SOCIOCULTURAL SYSTEM

(Excerpt from July, 1967 draft of projected guidelines for foreign-language teaching, State of North Carolina, Mrs. Tora T. Ladu, Supervisor of Modern Foreign Languages)

LEVEL 1

By the end of level 1, students should be able to behave or tell how to behave according to the properties of the foreign culture in common situations, especially:

> greetings, introducing a person, thanking, saying goodbye, eating rudiments of table manners), conduct toward persons of one's own and of higher social status.

They should be able to describe in English some of the commonest leisure-time activities of adolescents in the foreign society.

LEVEL 2

By the end of level 2, students should be able to: define orally in the target language any six main themes in the value system of the foreign culture; describe orally what the family means to a person of the foreign culture, defining the norms of behavior that prescribe the role of father, mother, son, and daughter; describe orally, for several regions of the culture area whose language is studied, the influence of the geographical setting on the people's life as they adapt to the setting and utilize its resources. The emphasis should be on *human* geography: that is, on the interaction of the population and its environment.

During the second level, after initial experience of reading toward the end of the first level, students should read carefully some good literature in the language, discussing both its artistic qualities and the evidence it gives of cultural and social patterns. Filmed recitations of appropriate brief works or selections can deepen the experience of literature as art and as illustration of the culture.

LEVEL 3

By the end of level 3, students should be able to define all the main themes of the value system, and should be able to give a brief, prepared talk in the foreign language on any two of the following: the political and judicial institutions of the foreign country, its economic system, the status of women and adolescents in the society, and the status of the main religious and ethnic minorities. This expectation is of course in addition to those of level 2.

LEVEL 4

By the end of level 4, students should be able to write in the foreign language a brief account of any of the topics listed under the culture, society, and ecology of the population, covering most main features of that aspect of the people's mode of life. The essay should exhibit real understanding, not merely superficial ideas peripheral to the subject.